## RUSSIAN GRAMMAR

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# RUSSIAN GRAMMAR

BY

NEVILL FORBES, M.A., Ph.D.

READER IN RUSSIAN AND THE OTHER SLAVONIC LANGUAGES IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

SECOND EDITION

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#### PREFACE

THE accompanying volume is a practical rather than a scientific grammar. It is intended for the use of those students who are working under a teacher able to explain the difficulties of the language to them, and also for the use of those who are working at the language by themselves with the object of being able to read it; but it does not profess to be an adequate means of teaching any one working alone how to speak Russian.

As it is an elementary book, philological references and comparisons and etymological explanations have been avoided, in order not to discourage the beginner.

The most important points of the syntax that could be included in a book of this size have been mentioned, not in a part by themselves, but incorporated in the morphology.

I wish to thank Dr. Henry Bradley and Mr. Daniel Jones for the help which they have kindly given me with regard to one or two points of detail, particularly in those parts dealing with pronunciation. Syntactical examples have been gathered from the works of Púshkin, Gógol, Goncharóv, L. Tolstói, Dostoyévski, and Gárshin.

NEVILL FORBES.

OXFORD, June, 1914.

#### PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

Besides being thoroughly revised, the grammar has been enlarged by several sections of a practical character; also an index of Russian words and phrases and an English subject-index have been added, which, it is thought, will be found useful.

N. F.

OXFORD, July, 1916.

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#### INTRODUCTION

#### § 1. The Russians and the Russian Language.

Russian, like most of the other languages of Europe, belongs to the great Indo-European family of languages. Within this family it is one of the group of Slavonic languages, as German is one of the Germanic group of languages. The Slavonic group of languages includes Polish, Bohemian (or Czech), Slovak (in Northern Hungary), and Lusatian-Wendish (still spoken in the valley of the Spree), which form its Western, Slovene, Serbo-Croatian and Bulgarian, which form its Southern, and Russian, comprising Great, Little, and White Russian, which forms its Eastern and largest branch. The phonetics of the Slavonic languages have become differentiated from those of other European languages in such a way that their affinity with these latter is not always directly apparent. But one has only to took at such primitive words as сестра́ (sestrá), брать (brat), сынъ (syn), дочь (doch'), бровь (brov'), борода́ (borodá), молоко́ (molokó), гусь (gus'), пска-(iska-) to see their close connexion with our sister, brother, son, daughter, brow, beard, milk, goose, ask. Other words, such as math (mat'), домъ (dom), въра (vera), око (oko), видъ- (vide-), immediately recall cognate words in Greek and Latin. Many, like вдова́ (vdová), widow, have equivalents closely similar in most of the Indo-European languages. The population of the Russian Empire numbers about 175,000,000, and of these fully two-thirds, about 117,000,000, are Russians. Of these again about two-thirds, nearly 80,000,000, are Russians properly so called, or Great Russians, who occupy the whole of Northern, Central (as far west as Smolensk), Eastern and South-Eastern Russia, and Siberia; it is their language which is the vastly predominating one, which is also the official and the literary language, and is generally called Russian, though to distinguish it from Little and White Russian it is termed Great Russian. Little Russian, a dialect of Russian so strongly differentiated as almost to justify its being called a separate language, is spoken by about thirty million people in Southern and South-Western Russia and in Eastern Galicia, where it is called Ruthenian. The White Russian dialect is spoken by about eight millions in Western Russia, the centre of which may be regarded as Mogilev (Могилёвъ); it is not so different from Great Russian as is Little Russian.

#### § 2. The Alphabet.

The alphabet used by the Russians and by the other Slavs of the orthodox confession. Serbians and Bulgarians, for the rendering of the sounds of their language is that known as the Cyrillic (кириллица). It is so called because its composition is attributed to St. Cyril (826-869), a Greek of Salonika, whose secular name was Constantine, who with his brother Methodius was commissioned by the Emperor Michael II to effect the conversion of Moravia, the Prince of Moravia having expressed a wish to see Christianity introduced into his country. Confronted with the problem how to communicate the Truth to the savages of Pannonia, he with great ingenuity elaborated an alphabet which with scientific accuracy represented the sounds of the Slavonic vernacular, so different from those of Greek. His work was facilitated by his knowledge of the Slavonic dialects current at that time in Macedonia, indeed it was on this account that he had been chosen to accomplish the task. The Slavonic language, for the transcription of whose sounds he composed his alphabet, is now generally considered to have been Old Bulgarian, which was, however, quite possibly intelligible to the inhabitants of Moravia at a time when the several Slavonic languages were without doubt very far from being so divergent from one another as they are to-day. Whether it was of the alphabet now called Cyrillic that St. Cyril was the author, or of the cognate alphabet called Glagolitic, still used in remote parts of Dalmatia, is uncertain, but it is probable that of the two, the latter, the Glagolitic, which has been proved to be older than the Cyrillic and was founded on the Greek minuscule script of the ninth century, was that actually compiled by him, and was later owing to the complexity of its character almost everywhere supplanted by the alphabet now known as the Cyrillic, which, founded on the Greek majuscule

script, was much clearer than the Glagolitic. The Cyrillic is the only alphabet the use of which the Russians have ever known. and it is not unnatural that its origin should have been attributed to the man who was the first to put down any Slavonic dialect in black on white, and has ever since been regarded as the fountain of their enlightenment by all Slavs of the Eastern faith. The art of writing was introduced into Russia simultaneously with Christianity in the tenth century, and the Cyrillic alphabet was imposed upon the country with as much vigour as the new religion, but with far less regard for local conditions. The alphabet had been an admirable instrument for rendering Old Bulgarian, but the phonology of that language was then already very different from that of Russian. Old Bulgarian (called in Russian 'Church-Slavonic'), however, immediately established itself as the language of the church, a position it still holds with quite inconsiderable modifications to-day; it became the only approved medium of expression for all literary work, and, though it could not remain altogether free from the influences of the vernacular Russian, especially in works of a secular character, yet the alphabet itself took such firm root, that no attempts to alter it have been successful. Of the influence of Old Bulgarian, or Church-Slavonic, on the grammatical forms and vocabulary of Russian, mention will be made later. Here it is only necessary to remind the student that the discrepancies between Russian as it is written and Russian as it is spoken, the illogicalness of Russian orthography, which owes its quaint charm to a sense of historical tradition and recalls that of our own language, and consequently much of the difficulty experienced in mastering Russian, are all due to the fact that the Cyrillic alphabet was not originally made for that language. It is necessary in every language to submit to certain conventions, and it is doubtful whether those which regulate the orthography of the Western Slavonic languages, e.g. Polish and Czech, which use a distorted Latin alphabet, are more rational and less formidable than those which govern Russian. Besides Sanskrit, the only language which has a really scientific alphabet, in which every letter corresponds exactly and without help of accents to the sound it is intended to represent, is Serbian, where there was no historical tradition strong enough to obstruct reform. The Cyrillic alphabet is based on that of the Greek majuscule script but contains important additional signs, the origin of which is not known, representing sounds which never existed in Greek. Its directly Greek origin is apparent in the quite unnecessary incorporation in it of  $\hbar\tau a$  (u),  $l\hat{\omega}\tau a$  (i), and  $\delta \psi \iota \lambda \delta \nu$  (v), which all had exactly the same value in Greek as it was spoken in the ninth century, viz. i, and in the necessity of inventing a separate sign for b (B 6), because the Greek  $\beta$  was in the ninth century only pronounced as v, except after m, e.g.  $\lambda a\mu$ - $\beta \acute{a}\nu \omega$ , while in Old Bulgarian b never followed on a nasal consonant. The Cyrillic characters, which were originally very plain, but had by the eighteenth century assumed somewhat complicated and unwieldy shapes, were by Peter the Great simplified for the requirements of modern printing and at the present time have the following appearance:

PRIN	TED	ITALIC	TRANSLITERATED	NAME
$\mathbf{A}$	a	A a	a	a
Б	б	Б б	ъ	бе
В	В	Вв	v •	ве
Г	r	$\Gamma$ :	$\boldsymbol{g}$	re
Д	д	Д д	d	де
$\mathbf{E}$	е	E e	e 1	<b>e</b>
Ж	ж	Ж ж	zħ	же
3	3	3 3	æ	30
И	и	$\boldsymbol{u}$		( H
I	i	I i	$i^2$	i съ то́чкой (= i with a dot)
Й	й3	й й		й сь кра́ткой (= i with a short quantity)
к	к	Kκ	k	ка
Л	л	Л л		эль

<sup>1</sup> After vowels, also after ъ and ь, both e and ъ are transliterated

3 These four letters, й ъ ы ь, are never initial.

The very common adjectival terminations - win and -in are transliterated by the one letter y and i respectively.

NTED	IT	LIC	TRANSLITERATED	NAME
M	M	м	m	ЭМЪ
Ħ	H	н	n	ЭНЪ
0	0	0	0	0
n	II	n	p	пе
p	$\boldsymbol{P}$	p	r	эръ
C	$\boldsymbol{C}$	C	8	эсъ
T	T	m	t	ТӨ
y	y	y	u	<b>y</b>
ф	Φ	gб	f	ъфъ
x	$\boldsymbol{X}$	œ	$kh^{1}$	ха
ц	Ц	24	ts	цө
ч	Ч	ų	ch	че
ш	Ш	ш	sh	ща
щ	Щ	114	shch	ща
ъ2	ъ	ъ		еръ <sup>4</sup>
			literation, cf. § 9]	орв
ы2	Ы	33	y	еры
$\mathbf{p_5}$	Ъ	ъ	[usually omitted	ерь⁵
			in transliteration,	
	1 2			
7		7ъ	e <sup>3</sup>	ять
9	Э	э		<b>э</b> оборо́тное
	<b>T</b> 0			(= turned round)
			yu	10
			<b>y</b> a	8
				<b>еита́</b>
T/P	1/			ижица
	м н о п р с т у ф х ц ч ш щ ъ <sup>2</sup>	м М н Н о О п П р Р с С т Т у у ф Ф х Х ц Ц ч Ч ш Ш щ Ш ь² Б в Э ю но я е Ө	М М М М М Н Н Н П О О О О О П П П п Р Р Р С С С Т Т т Т Т Т Т Т Т Т Т Т Т Т Т Т Т	M M M m H H N n O O O O O H III n p P P P r C C C c s T T m t Y Y Y u

The place of English x is taken in Russian by KC or K3.

Initial x is transliterated h.
 See note 3 on p. 12.
 See note 1 on p. 12.
 Also called твёрдый знакь = hard sign.
 Also called миткій знакь = soft sign.

The Written Alphabet CcAa III m m of 50 Bel FF X x x Inr 2 og E e ly ug 4 ur H so ye yo 3 3 3 Ill in in My my Uuun Jiin **一 %** 6 6 KKK Mun - 60 Muun ゆあれる HAHAA 9 3 0 0 H 20 10 H rrn IInn Phpp (A) 0

How letters are addressed in Russian
Mockba
Арбатъ д. 30 кв. 15
E. B. E. (Ero Boscono Enaropodino)
Hunosaso Muxausbury Cerrneby
Орновскай губ
2. Myenckr
c. Transdamnoe
En Tpebocscoduments comby
Andrew Tempobury Comorosusus
Andrew Tempobury Conormusy sur nepedaru E. B. J.
Topucy Tabsobury Cumproberomy
Temporpade
Trabuar Torma - do socrepesobarier
En Ciamers emby Krennuns
Anna Unimuran Trisonopenoù

#### RUSSIAN TRANSCRIPTION

Москва

Арба́тъ д. (= домъ) 30 кв. (= кварти́ра) 15 Е.В.Б. (Его́ Высокоблагоро́дію) Никола́го Миха́йловичу Сергь́еву.

Орловская губ. (= губернія)
г. (= городз) Миенскъ
с. (= селб) Благодатное
Его Превосходательству
Андрею Петровичу Стоюнину
для передачи Е.В.Б.
Борасу Павловичу Стирновскому.

Петроградъ Гла́вная По́чта, до востре́бованія Ей Сі́ятельству Княги́нть А́ннт Ильи́ничнть Бюломо́рской,

#### ENGLISH TRANSLATION

Moscow

Arbát (House) No. 30 (Flat) No. 15 (genitive) His (dative) Highwellbornness (dative) Nicholas Mikháilovich Sergéyev.

Government (= Province) of Orél (Орёжь) town Mtsensk

village Blagodátnoye
(genitive) His (dative) Excellency
(dative) Andrew Petróvich Stoyúnin
for handing-over to His Highwellbornness
(dative) Boris Pávlovich Smirnóvski.

Petrograd
General Post Office, till called for (= Poste Restante)
(genitive) Her (dative) Serenity Princess
(dative) Anne Ilínichna (cf. p. 81) Belomórskaya.

1 = B. P. Smirnóvski, c/o A. P. Stoyúnin.

## A letter in Russian

Menoybaskaembin Toinodur C.! Влагодарю Васт за Ваше письмо omt / 20 rueda c. M., Komopoe er nosyruse cerodus. I orens part, mo Bor Dokxadu Traronolyrno do Mocuber, u наджнось скоро съ Вани познакоnumber. It Sydy Back nedams y cerson zabropa bo 11 r. ympa; если же это Вамя недбовно, то I nocmapasocs repiuma er Baur br dens u br race, nomopour Bor can Haznarume. Br npiэтном оживани скоро ст Banco nobudambed, unclear Bank beero scopomaro, ocmaroch npedannoù Bame

1718

#### RUSSIAN TRANSCRIPTION

Многоуважаемый Господинь С.!

Влагодирю Вась за Ваше письмо ото 1го (= перваго) числа с.м. (= сего мюсяца), которое я получиль сегооня. Я бчень радь, что Вы добжали благополучно до Москвы, и надбнось скоро съ Вами познакомиться. Я буду Вась эндать у себя завтра въ 11 ч. (= часовъ) утра; если оне это Вамъ неудобно, то я постарансь прійти къ Вамъ въ день и въ чась, которые Вы сами назначите. Въ пріятномъ ожиданіи скоро съ Вами повидаться, и онелая Вамъ всего хорошаго, остаюсь

преданный Вамъ

A. E.

#### ENGLISH TRANSLATION

MUCH-RESPECTED MR. S.,

Thank you for your letter of the 1st inst. (lit. date of this month), which I received to-day. I am very glad that you have reached Moscow safely, and hope soon to make your acquaintance. I shall expect you at my house to-morrow at 11 a.m.; but if this is inconvenient for you, then I will try and come to (see) you on a day and at an hour which you shall yourself fix. In the pleasant expectation of soon meeting you, and wishing you every good, I remain.

devoted to you,

₫. B.

(N.B.—People with whom one is already acquainted are always addressed by the Christian name and the patronymic. Dear Sir (Ми́мостивый Госуда́рь — Merciful Sovereign) is used in very formal or business letters, usually with the name added. Dear (дорого́й, ми́мый) is only used to relations or intimate friends; a more formal ending is глубо́коуважа́ющій Вась, cf. p. 201. An intermediate opening is мобе́зный — amiable.)

#### PRONUNCIATION

#### § 3. The Vowels.

There are ten vowels in Russian, five hard and, corresponding to these, five soft or palatalized, and two so-called mute vowels, one hard and one soft. A soft or palatalized vowel means a hard vowel preceded by the sound of the English letter y in such a way as to make a monophthong; e.g. the sound contained in the English words you or yew is really a palatalized u. This process of turning a hard into a soft vowel is called palatalization and plays a very important part in Russian. Whenever a soft or palatal vowel is preceded immediately by a consonant, the latter is affected by the y-sound of the palatal vowel and coalesces with it, the result being a softened or palatalized consonant. A consonant followed by a palatal vowel is pronounced differently from one followed by a hard vowel, though the effect of the palatal vowel is much greater on some consonants than on others, while the effect of certain palatal vowels is greater than that of others.

Further, a palatal vowel sometimes affects the pronunciation of a hard vowel in the preceding syllable, though here again certain palatal vowels particularly affect certain hard vowels.

The pronunciation of the vowels is further influenced by the position of the accent. The Russian is a stress accent and is mobile, i.e. it can fall on any syllable. There are certain rules for the placing of the accent, but as they are positively riddled with exceptions, it is far more difficult to learn them from a book than by ear or by reading accented texts; they have therefore been omitted in this grammar, the accent itself, however, of course being marked in the case of each word mentioned.

#### § 4. Hard Vowels.

The five hard vowels are

а э ы о у

and the mute vowel B.

#### $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{a} = a$

when accented and not followed by a palatal vowel (sc. with an intermediate consonant) is pronounced somewhat as in father but is more like the a in the French ma = my (f.), or in the German das Land, e.g. да = yes, рано = early, мало = little (adverb). When not accented (and not followed by a palatal vowel) it is of the same quality as accented a only much shorter, e.g. pa6óra = work. If, however, it precedes the accent by more than one syllable, or if, following the accent, it is itself followed by a hard vowel, then it is pronounced like the obscure vowel in English, i.e. like the first a in paternal or like er in order, e. g. тараканъ = cockroach, облако = cloud. Accented and unaccented a, when followed in a subsequent syllable by a palatal vowel, is pronounced much sharper, more like a in the French word Espagne, e.g. in such words as Mránis = Italy (pronounced as Italians pronounce Italia), далеко = far, даю = I give. For the pronunciation of accented a when followed by the soft mute vowel b. cf. § 14. Initial a is very rare in Russian.

#### § 5. $\partial a = e$

(called in Russian э оборо́тное = turned round) occurs only in two or three genuinely Russian words (in which it is always accented) as a demonstrative prefix, but is common in words of foreign origin. Its pronunciation depends on whether it is followed in the next syllable by a hard or a soft (palatalized) vowel. If the vowel in the following syllable is hard, e.g. in the word это = this (N.), 9 is pronounced very open and has the value of e, ai, or a as they are pronounced respectively in the English words ere, air, or fare in the South of England. If the vowel in the following syllable is soft (e.g. n = i) n = i is pronounced like a in the Northern English hate, e.g.  $\delta TH = these$  (M.F.N.), but with the lips still closer together. In foreign words a has the value of e in the English word end, e.g. эрмитажь = the hermitage, экземпларь = сору, specimen, Эдуардъ = Edward, when unaccented: if accented. it is liable to the same changes as the demonstrative pronominal prefix mentioned above, e.g. поэть = poet, but поэть = poet (locative case); in the first case 9 is pronounced open, as in 500, in the second more closed, as in эти.

#### § 6. $\mathbf{H} \mathbf{H} = y$

This is the vowel the pronunciation of which causes most difficulty to foreigners. but less to Britons than to Germans or Frenchmen, because a sound very much like it exists in English. Its approximately correct pronunciation is best attained by saving with clenched teeth the syllables containing y i in the following English words: Whithy, till, mill, rill, sill, sandy. Russian words with similar syllables are, e.g. быль = he was, ты = thou, мы = we. рыль = he dug. cынь = son. лымь = smoke. The pronunciation of M is comparatively little affected by being unaccented or by subsequent soft vowels. The ы in e.g. была, she was, scarcely differs at all from that in быль. The ы in e.g. были = they were (where it is followed by the soft vowel n) is pronounced not quite so thickly, but is not affected in the same way as is a (85). It is important not to confuse the vowel u now adopted to transliterate ы in English with the semi-vowel u which denotes palatalization. W is never initial, and cannot stand after K. T. X. X. ч. ш. or ш. after which letters its place is always taken by и. It is important to notice, however, that after m and m the vowel m is pronounced like ы.

#### $\delta$ 7. $0 \ 0 = 0$

has the value, when accented, of the Italian o in Roma, much opener than the English o in shore, and more like the aw in sawe Examples: one he, nóma = at home. When unaccented the quality of o is entirely changed, and it is pronounced like unaccented a (cf. § 4), i.e. like the obscure vowel in English, i.e. like the first a in paternal, or like the er in order, e.g. in the words nopá = time, xopomó = all right, nóporo = dear (adv.), in all of which it sounds much more like an a than an o. This peculiarity of Russian as spoken in Moscow and to the west and south of that city explains the old English rendering of Mockbá (Moscow) by Muscovy. The effect of a soft vowel on o in a preceding syllable is very marked; the palatalization is anticipated and o is pronounced almost like oi in English oil, e.g. in 60m = pains.

#### § 8. $\mathbf{y} = u$

when accented is pronounced like English oo in boot, e.g. ýtka = duck, morý = I can, ýmhum = clever; when unaccented it is

shorter, like English oo in book, e.g. móryte = they can, чугу́не = cast-iron. It is not affected by a subsequent soft vowel as much as are a, a, and o, though slight anticipation of the palatal also takes place. The reason why Russian u is written y is that the sound could only be represented in Greek by ov, which was incorporated in the Cyrillic alphabet as oy and for long written thus; these were later made into a compound letter 8, which in its turn became gradually assimilated to the Western European y, but with a different value.

#### § 9. **Ъ** ъ

called in Russian epb (pronounced yare, the a having the value of a in the English words ware, fare, and the r being rolled) or твёрдый знакь = the hard sign, is the hard mute vowel. letter, at the time the alphabet was made for the Old Bulgarian language in the ninth century, had the value of a full vowel, and was pronounced like a very short u, probably like the u in the English word bulb, which value it still retains in modern Bulgarian. The letter was adopted by the Russians together with all the rest of the alphabet at the time of their conversion in the tenth century, but there is nothing to prove that there was a sound corresponding to this letter in the Russian as spoken then. though it is probable that at some earlier period the sound had existed also in Russian. In Russian as we know it this letter has never been anything more than a cipher. Its function is a purely negative one, viz. to show that the preceding consonant is not palatalized (softened) but pronounced hard, a fact which the total omission of this letter would indicate equally clearly. advertisement columns of the press, in some newspapers, and by people who either make a point of being up-to-date or wish to save time and space, it is frequently omitted, but in all printed books, in the majority of newspapers, and by most people it is still used owing to the authority of tradition and convention. To is commonest as a terminal, it is never initial, and the convention for the use of medial B is that in those words which begin with a soft vowel and are compounded with a preposition ending in a hard consonant, the preposition retains the ъ, е. g. объ+ясненіе = explanation is written объяснение.

§ 10.

Soft Vowels.

The five corresponding soft or palatal vowels are

я е (ѣ) и (йі v) [ё] к

and the mute vowel b.

 $\mathbf{R} \mathbf{a} = ya$ 

is palatalized a and when accented is pronounced like it, e.g. Алта = Yalta. When it is preceded by a consonant it coalesces with it and forms a palatalized consonant, e.g. ня́ня = nurse, where н has the value of gn in the French word Espagne, дя́дя = uncle, where д is like dy in Rudyard.

In the syllable immediately preceding or following the accent  $\pi$  retains its quality but is much shorter. When preceding the accent by more than one syllable its quality changes and it is pronounced like a short i or e, e.g. pagh = rank, row, is pronounced ryad, nom. pl.  $pagh = the \ ranks : ryad y$  (cf. § 6), but  $pagh = a \ private$ , ridav o or ryed av o.

я never occurs after ж, ц, ч, ш, ог щ.

§ 11. E e and **b** b (or **lb** гь)

e and B in Old Bulgarian represented two distinct sounds, e: ĕ and ѣ: ē, but they are both pronounced exactly alike in Russian, where the quantitative differences between e and e have been lost. The letter & (called ять), which has two forms & and ть (\* and n), is only retained thanks to historical tradition. Like 3 it has been abandoned in the Government telegraph service, and the words in which its use is etymologically essential have with immense difficulty to be memorized. Unaccented e and b are always pronounced ye as in yet, e.g. Екатерина = Catherine, pron. Yekatyerina (i = Italian i); Вълградъ = Belgrade, pron. Byelgrad; вда́ = food, pron. yeda. Accented, the pronunciation of e and в is affected like that of a (cf. § 5) by the character of the vowel in the following syllable. If followed by a hard vowel in the following syllable, by a hard terminal consonant, or if terminal themselves, they are pronounced like e in similar case, only preceded by the y semi-vowel, i.e. very open, as in English air, fare, e.g. raséra = newspaper, pron. gazyéta; ymé = already, pron. uzhé; Éду = I am riding, pron. yédu; мнь = to me, pron. mnyé; ымь = I eat, pron. uém.

If followed by a soft (or palatalized) vowel accented e and hare pronounced like ya in the word Yale, or like the English word yea, but with the lips still closer together, e.g. rasérh = newspaper (dat. sing.), écan = if, hath = he is riding, eh = to her, shhot = here. The consonants m, y, m, m absorb the y-sound inherent in e (h), so that when preceded by them e sounds like hat evife, pron. zhena; yeanehkh = human being, pron. chelavyék; mén = neck, pron. shéya; mena = cheek, pron. shchea, though when y and m (which are palatal consonants) are followed by accented e (h), the y-sound is still audible unless the words are spoken very rapidly, e.g. yeane (inst. sing. of yto = what) = than, pron. chyem; yépesh = over, through, across, pron. chyéryez; menb = chink, crack, pron. shchyel' (l' = palatalized l).

#### $[\ddot{\mathbf{E}} \ddot{\mathbf{e}} = yo]$

It is a peculiarity of Russian that accented e before a hard consonant or when terminal, although in certain categories of words pronounced as stated above, yet in the majority of cases changes its quality and is pronounced like a Russian o (cf. § 7) preceded by y semi-vowel. This vowel which is really a palatalized o corresponding to hard o is not counted as a separate vowel and is therefore here placed in brackets. At one time it was the custom in writing and printing to differentiate this ë by placing a diaeresis over it, but as Russians know instinctively when to pronounce e as 40, such an aid was felt to be unnecessary and is now seldom used. In this book the pronunciation of e as yo is indicated throughout. As only accented e is pronounced yo, the accent is in these cases omitted and replaced by the diaeresis. Examples: село́ = village, pron. syeló; but сёла = villages, pron. syóla; éсли = if (и is a soft vowel and softens or palatalizes the preceding consonant, therefore e retains its original value), but ёлка = spruce-tree, prop. yólka (a is a hard vowel): ве́село = cheerful (adv.), pron. vyésyelo (e is a soft vowel and palatalizes the c, therefore the first e retains its original value), but весёлая = cheerful (nom. sing. F.), pron. vyesyólaya (because although s is soft, yet the vowel which immediately follows accented e is hard). Accented e followed by a consonant +b is also pronounced yo as в has the value of a hard vowel, e.g. вёль = he led, pron. vyól;  $H\ddot{e}cb = he brought$ , pron. nyós;  $\ddot{e}xb = hedgehog$ , pron. yósh (cf. §19).

Terminal accented e is always pronounced yo except in the one word уже́ mentioned above, e.g. eë = her (acc. sing. from она), pron. yeyó; moë = my (nom. acc. sing. N.), pron. mayó. Just as e, although followed by a hard consonant and vowel, is nevertheless in many cases not pronounced uo (cf. p. 23), so conversely it is pronounced uo in many cases where it is not to be expected, i. e. although followed by a soft or palatalized consonant and vowel; such cases are entirely due to analogical influence; e.g. ведёмъ = we are leading, pron, vyedyóm, has by its analogy caused ведёте = you are leading, to be pronounced vyedyotye, although the accented e is followed by palatalized consonant and soft vowel e; телёнокъ = calf, pron. tyelyonak, and телёнкь = calf (loc. sing.), pron. tyelyonkye, influenced by the e in the nom, and in all the other cases, although followed by the soft vowel is; ropóio = hill, pron. garóyu (instr. sing. of F. decl. in -a), has influenced землёю = earth, pron. zyemlyóyu (instr. sing. of F. decl. in -a) although followed by the soft vowel w = yu. In cases where there is no analogical influence, accented e before a soft vowel or palatalized consonant is pronounced ye, as would be expected, e.g. Шереметевъ = Sheryemyetyev. мое́й = instr. sing. F. from мой = my, pron. mayéi.

The consonants ж, ч, ш, щ absorb the y-sound inherent in ë, so that when preceded by them ë sounds just like o, e.g. жёнь (= gen. pl. from жена́ = wife), pron. zhon; чёмъ (loc. sing. from что = what), pron. chom; шёль (= past tense of идта́ = to go), pron. shol; ещё = more, pron. yeshchó, colloquially often ishchó.

On the analogy of accented e followed by a hard consonant and vowel being pronounced yo, accented & followed by a hard consonant and vowel is also in certain cases pronounced yo, a result of the two letters being pronounced identically. & is thus pronounced in the following words: сыдла = saddles (nom. sing. сыдло), гызада = nests (nom. sing. гызадо), зыйзды = stars (nom. sing. зыйзда), пріобрыть = obtained (разт tense from пріобрыті), пыйть = blossomed (разт tense from прыстій), найжань = put on (ратт. разs. from надывать), and запечатійнь = marked (ратт. разs. from запечатійнь. Even accented я із in three cases pronounced yo, owing again to the confusion caused by the similarity in the pronunciation of unaccented e, b, and я; the three words in question are: трйсь = shook (разт tense from трястії), запрыть = harnessed (разт tense from запрачь), and ей = of her (gen. sing. from ohá). In

all these cases unaccented e,  $\tilde{a}$ , and  $\tilde{a}$  are short vowels of very uncertain quality; they vary from  $\tilde{a}$  to  $\tilde{e}$  and  $\tilde{i}$ , hence the confusion in the pronunciation of certain words where they bear the accent.

#### § 12. **M** (n i v, cf. § 1)

These four letters represent only one sound, which is that of the Italian i, and the reasons for their existence and for the continuance of their use are purely conventional and traditional.

#### и (sometimes called и простое = simple i)

is by far the most common of the four; it is used (i) at the beginning of words, if followed by a consonant; (ii) in the middle of words, if preceded and followed by a consonant; (iii) in the middle of words, if it is preceded by a vowel but at the same time begins a fresh syllable itself; and (iv) at the end of words if it stands as a single vowel, or if, preceded by another vowel, it forms a fresh syllable itself.

й,

called и съ кра́ткой (=i with a short quantity), is only used after another vowel when it forms one syllable (i.e. a diphthong) with it, therefore never at the beginning of words.

i,

called n ce touch  $(=i\ with\ a\ dot)$ , is only used before another vowel when it does not form one syllable with it, therefore never at the end of words.

V.

called ижица (= little yoke, dim. of uno = yoke), is a transcription of the Greek v (upsilon), which in late Greek acquired the value of short i. In modern Russian it is only used in a few ecclesiastical words of Greek origin, and its place even in these is often taken by u.

n being a palatal (or soft) vowel always affects the pronunciation of a preceding consonant, though the y-sound which comes between it and a preceding consonant is not always so clearly audible as it is in the case of e. The influence of n also extends further back than the consonant immediately preceding it, and affects the pronunciation of the vowel in the preceding syllable (cf. examples of the pronunciation of hard vowels when followed by n in the next syllable, §§ 5, 7). The consonants most

noticeably affected by a subsequent n are r (t) and r (d), r (n) and r (l), cf. the pronunciation of fr = these, r 5, and of r are child, which is pronounced dyitya, the first syllable like d'ye in the phrase how d'ye do, ohn = they, pron. any r; moratra, pron. malyitva. The difficulty which Russians have in pronouncing a clean i-sound after r and r is often to be noticed in their pronunciation of certain French words, such as dites, bottines, or indeed in that of any foreign words where r and r are followed by r, in which cases they are inclined to insert a r-sound between the consonant and the vowel.

It is to be noticed that и after the consonants ж and ш is pronounced like ы, i.e. it becomes hard and loses its palatal quality, e.g. жирь = fat, grease, pron. zhyr, жизнь = life, pron. zhyzn' (n' = palatalized n), широ́кій = broad (nom. sing. masc.), pron. shyroʻki, ши́ре = broader, pron. shyrye. After ч and щ on the other hand и is always palatal.

Curiously enough initial n in Russian has lost its preiotization; in Russian words beginning with n, the n is pronounced i and not gi as one would expect, e.g. n as m is pronounced i in m is pronounced i in and not gi in gi. The only exceptions to this are certain cases of the personal pronoun one gi in which initial gi is pronounced gi: gi in gi

In the syllables -biň, -iň, -oň, in which the nom. sing. masc. of all Russian adjectives and of very many Russian family names (which are mostly adjectival in form) end, -ň is merely the second half of a diphthong and is pronounced like y in the English word boy. It is to be noticed that in diphthongs such as an and on occurring in other words the  $\ddot{n}$  is often barely audible, e. g. no $\ddot{n}$  or come! sounds like padyí, Maxáno = Michael, like Mikhálo.

The effect on the pronunciation of u of the absence or the presence of the accent on it is inappreciable; its pronunciation alters merely quantitatively, not qualitatively. Similarly, u being a palatal vowel, its pronunciation is not affected by the presence of another palatal vowel in any subsequent syllable.

The form of the letter u is derived from the Greek H  $\eta$   $(\tilde{\eta}\tau a)$ ; it is curious to note that while the Greek H has become u in Russian, the Greek N appears in Russian as H (cf. § 24).

For ë cf. § 11.

#### § 13.

#### Ho Ho = yu

is pronounced like the English word you, i.e. the Italian u preceded by the semi-vowel y, e.g. hdh(i) (lyublyu) = I love, I like. The letter itself is a combination of  $\iota$  (lova) and o ( $\mathfrak{d}$   $\mu\kappa\rho\delta\nu$ ). Its pronunciation is not affected by the presence or absence of the accent. To is also used to represent French u and German  $\ddot{u}$  in transliteration, e.g. Sphecent Bruxelles, Highherpt Nürnberg.

#### § 14. Ьь¹

called in Russian ерь or мя́гкій знакь = the soft sign, is the soft mute vowel. It is a word which is difficult both to transcribe adequately and to pronounce in English, but may be approximately rendered by year, pronouncing the e like the ai in the English word waist and the final ir with the tip of the tongue, softening or palatalizing them by adding to them the sound of the semi-vowel y, without, however, allowing the additional sound to form an additional syllable. Like b, the hard mute vowel, it once had the value of a full vowel, and was pronounced like a very short i, but in course of time its quality changed, it lost its power of forming a syllable, and became merely the sign of palatalization of a preceding consonant. Unlike 5, however, it still plays an important part in Russian orthography and pronunciation, and could not easily be dispensed with. It is the only visible indication there is of the softening or palatalization of a preceding consonant. As already mentioned, this softening or palatalization is difficult to explain in the terms of a language, such as English, in which this particular process is comparatively rare; the general effect is to add to the preceding consonant a y-sound without allowing the sound thus added to form an additional syllable. The actual sound of a palatalized consonant of course occurs frequently enough in many other languages, e.g. d is palatalized

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In transliteration b is popularly omitted, but in this book and for all scientific and bibliographical purposes its presence is indicated by an apostrophe, e. g.  $\mu$  app =  $tsar^2$ .

in the English word educate, n in the Italian word ogni, l in the Spanish word llama, but the difficulty in Russian is that these palatalized consonants occur as often as not at the end of words, and it is in these cases that their pronunciation is a stumbling-block to foreigners. A further difficulty is caused by the fact that the consonant palatalized by l, or rather l itself, influences the pronunciation of a hard vowel in the preceding syllable, causing a throwing-back of the l-sound on to the preceding vowel, in German called the l-Vorschlag.

Examples of the similar effect of u on a hard vowel in a preceding syllable have already been given (cf. §§ 5, 7). A good instance of that produced by b is the name of the Russian town Xа́рьковъ, the a of which is pronounced like the ai in the word Cairo; the first syllable Xaps- is pronounced almost like the English word hire, rolling the r. Another word in which the effect of b on a preceding hard vowel is very marked is napb = tsar', in which the a is pronounced almost like the ai of Cairo; another is the name of the Siberian river Obs, commonly written in English Obi, but really a monosyllabic word, the pronunciation of which is approximately Oip (cf. § 15), oi having the value of oi in the English coin. This throwing-back of the i-sound is far more marked in the case of a and o than in that of the other hard vowels u and y, while after a the soft mute vowel never occurs. The effect of the soft mute vowel, itself a palatal, on a preceding soft or palatal vowel is most marked in the case of я and е (ѣ), and scarcely noticeable in that of m and w; in the only case where it occurs after ë, i.e. in the 2nd sing. of the present of some verbs, it is, like B, not pronounced at all. An example of B after a is the word nath = five; in this case the throwing-back of the i-sound is not so marked as in that of the corresponding hard vowel a, but is nevertheless noticeable, while the final r is softened and pronounced, e.g. like the Thi- in the French name Thiers, i. e. it is palatalized, but does not form a syllable. The difference between a followed by a and a followed by a hard vowel is very noticeable in the two words пять = five and пято = heel; in the latter a has the value of ya in the English words yard, yarn, while in the former it is nearly as thin as the ya in Yat, though not quite. E or в followed by ь is pronounced like ya in the word Yale, but with lips still closer together, e. g. ects = there is, is pronounced approximately like yaist, i.e. like the English waist, with a palatalized t. The pronunciation of these consonants followed by L is one of the greatest difficulties for Englishmen talking Russian, and the very name of this letter—eph—is one of the hardest words in the language to pronounce correctly.

It is to be noticed that in the 2nd pers. sing. of the present of all verbs, which without exception ends in -шь, the ь has no effect at all, and the ш is pronounced hard, as if it were шь, е. g. идёшь = thou goest, pron. idyósh; видишь = thou seest, pron. vidyish.

ь may occur in the middle as well as at the end of words. though it cannot stand at the beginning of a word. Its function is always the same, viz. to palatalize or soften a preceding consonant. Etymologically it always represents the last remains of a lost i when it occurs in Russian words, and it is also used frequently in the transcription of foreign words. The word boshmy = I shalltake, is pronounced approximately vaizmú or voizmú (ai as in Cairo, oi as in coin), and is of only two, not three syllables; семья = family, is pronounced syemyá; быю = I hit, is pronounced byú (of course as one syllable); чьё = whose (N., interrog. pron.). chyó (as one syllable), and so on. In a number of neuter nouns ending in -e, either i or b may be used, and the pronunciation is the same, e.g. имъне от имънье = property (pronounced imyényeusually as three, but sometimes as four syllables). a is used in the transcription of foreign words such as пьянино = an upright piano, pronounced pianino, as in Italian, and always after l in foreign words before consonants or at the end, to show that the 1 is to be pronounced as single l in French and not like the Russian deep l, e. g. Ольденбургь = Oldenburg, Брюссель = Brussels. may be added that the effect of b on terminal dentals, nasals, and liquid consonants is far more marked than on labials, palatals, and sibilants. b does not occur after gutturals, which become palatals before it, and is never initial.

#### The Consonants.

§ 15.  $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{6} = b$ 

is pronounced as in English, except medial 6 before a voiceless consonant and final 6 (sc. 65 or 65), when it becomes voiceless, i.e. p, e.g. ποδ5 = forehead, pron. lop; róπyδ5 = pigeon, pron. gólup; roπγόθημης = little pigeon, 'my dear', pron. galúpchik.¹

Before a palatal vowel, b is palatalized (softened), though it is not as much affected by palatalization as are some other consonants; indeed in rapid speech, when unaccented, the palatalization is sometimes scarcely noticeable, e.g. безь — without, pron. byez (one syllable), but in rapid conversation bez, though it is of course never wrong to bring out the palatalization. It is always better to over-palatalize than to under-palatalize. Before an accented palatal vowel b is of course always palatalized, e.g. побъда — victory, pron. pabyéda (three syllables), бью — I hit, pron. byu (one syllable).

Before the palatal vowel n, however, even when this is accented, the palatalization of 6 is not expressed, owing to the physical inconvenience involved in doing so, e.g. noothed he loves, pron. lyūbit; yōina = murderer, pron. ubitsa, though it is very important to remember that the i here is pronounced like the English ee in e.g. beet, never like i in the words bit, bill. As Greek  $\beta$  was pronounced v at the time the Cyrillic alphabet was made, a new sign, viz. 6, had to be invented to represent b.

§ 16. **B B** = v

is pronounced as in English, except medial B before a voiceless consonant and final B (sc. Be or Be), when it becomes voiceless, i.e. f, e.g. pobe = ditch, pron. rof;  $\pi obose = love$ , pron. lyuboif (two syllables, cf. § 14);  $\pi obose = ladle$ , pron. hofsh.

Before a palatal vowel B is palatalized (softened), following 6 in this respect (q.v.). As in the case of 6, the extent to which the palatalization is noticeable depends very much on whether the palatal vowel is accented or not, while before the palatal vowel B

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It is worth remarking that the word py $\delta$ IL = rouble, is pronounced rup, as if it ended in  $\delta$ L.

it is not expressed at all, even when this is accented, e.g. Bechá = spring (of the year), pron. vyesná, which in rapid conversation may often sound like vesná, but bápa = faith, always vyéra, the yer of which is pronounced like ierre in the French Pierre; Befo = I wind, pron. vyu, like the English view; Buhó = wine, pron. vinó (i = Italian i).

In the transliteration of foreign words beginning with eu- and auto- the Greek v is in Russian represented by в, e.g. Евге́ній = Eugen, pron. Yevgyéni, автомобиль = motor-car, pron. aftamabil'.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

#### § 17. $\Gamma = g$

is pronounced in various ways. Initial r is always hard, like g in the English go, when followed by a vowel or by the consonants B,  $\pi$ , p, H,  $\Re$ , 3. In the word  $r\mathfrak{A}\mathfrak{b} = where$ , r is usually pronounced like a voiced kh, and may be transcribed  $gh-ghdy\ell$ , though sometimes here also as hard g or even as k.  $\Gamma$  is also pronounced gh in the vocative of  $\Gamma$ ocn $\mathfrak{A}\mathfrak{b} = Lord$ :  $\Gamma$ ocno $\mathfrak{A}\mathfrak{b}$ , pron. ghospodyi.

Medial r before a voiceless consonant is pronounced kh, like ch in the Scotch loch, e.g. rórr m = claws, pron. kókhtyi; before a voiced consonant it is pronounced usually gh, but also sometimes g or k, e.g. rorgá = when, pron. kaghdá, but also kakdá and kagdá.

Medial r before a vowel is hard, e.g. mhoro = much, pron. mnoga, but is as often as not pronounced ah, mnogha,  $mor\dot{y} = I$  am able, is pronounced magú, but as frequently maghú. In the oblique cases of the word Borb = God, r is always pronounced gh, e.g. Bory = to God. In the genitive singular masculine and neuter of all adjectives (in which connexion it is important to remember that most Russian family names are adjectives) and declinable pronouns, -aro, -ero, -oro, and -aro, r is pronounced v, e. g. eró = of him, pron. yevó; Τοπετότο = of Tolstói, pron. Talstóva. The reason for this is that the Old Bulgarian orthography adopted by the Russians was never altered by the latter to correspond to Russian pronunciation, which in this case differed from that of Old Bulgarian. It is a good instance to quote when Russians accuse English of being written one way and spoken another. It is important to remember that the word mnoro = much (quoted above) is not a genitive but an indeclinable pronoun, and is therefore not affected by this rule; likewise the negative Hemnoro = little.

Final r (sc. rb) is always voiceless, i.e. k, except in the word Borb = God, when it is pronounced kh as in Scotch loch, e.g. morb = I was able, pron. mok, but Borb always bokh.

r cannot be followed by ы (which it turns into и) nor by ь; r followed by a palatal vowel is pronounced hard, but with a y-sound immediately afterwards, e. g. no Bóurs (= dat. of Bóura) = along the Volga (pron. Vólgye), reorpáфія = geography, pron. gyeográfia, but in rapid speech the y is scarcely noticeable. In the transliteration of foreign names and words r is always used to represent h, a quaint convention established by Peter the Great; x would have been in most cases more rational. The resulting phenomena are often bizarre, e. g. B. Гюго = V. Нидо, Гаруйчъ-Гукъ-фанъ-Голландъ = Нагисісh—Ноок of Holland, Гуль = Hull (N.B. not, as might be thought, Goole); гидрофобія = hydrophobia.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 18. A = d

The pronunciation of the dental consonants in particular is affected by the quality of the subsequent vowel. Initial and medial g before a hard vowel, also initial and medial g+B, g, m, H, p is very frequently, i.e. in the pronunciation of many people, strictly inter-dental, i. e. the tongue while forming the sound touches both the upper and lower teeth. The sound produced is more like the Irish d, rather than the ordinary English d. which is of course not inter-dental, but cerebral, i.e. the tongue while forming the sound touches not the teeth but the roof of On the other hand, no aspirate is audible in the the mouth. Russian & before a hard vowel. In the pronunciation of some Russians the inter-dental quality of the A before a hard vowel is not so noticeable, but as a general rule it is strictly inter-dental as opposed to our purely cerebral d. It may be remarked that it is physically easier to give the full value to the hard vowels a, o, ы, y after an inter-dental than after a cerebral d, and therefore the inter-dental pronunciation for a foreigner is doubly important.

Initial and medial μ before a palatal (soft) vowel is, on the other hand, not inter-dental but strongly palatalized, i.e. pronounced like dy in, e.g. the English d'you (think), e.g. μάμη = uncle, pron. dyádya (only two syllables), μέμο = matter, pron. dyélo, Ομέσοα

— Odéssa, pron. Adyéssa, дитя = child, pron. dyitya. This explains how it is that Russians, although such good linguists, sometimes mispronounce foreign words, e.g. Dickens, often pronounced Dyickens, Divonne = Dyivonne, &c. Medial д followed by the palatal vowel в + another consonant is difficult for foreigners to pronounce, e.g. седьмой = seventh, is only a disyllable, pron. syedymói, in which dy has the same quality as the d'y in d'you; it is important to remember that it is neither English d nor English j. In the imperatives о́удьте = be (2nd pl.) and ся́дьте = be seated (2nd pl.) the дь becomes as it were lost in the т, which is strongly emphasized as if it were тт, so that these words (both very common) are pronounced búttye (u of course as in Italian), syáttye.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

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is pronounced like s in the English word measure, except when medial before a voiceless consonant and final, sc. жь от жь, when it becomes voiceless itself, i.e. sh. The effect of a palatal vowel on medial ж is to make it slightly thinner (the y-sound is scarcely noticeable), something between z and zh, though nearer to zh than to z. Examples: женá = wife, pron. zhená, жажда = thirst, pron. zházhdu, мужики́ = peasants, pron. muzhyki, мужь = husband, pron. mush, ло́жка = spoon, pron. Wishka. For the pronunciation of и, е, and ë after ж cf. §§ 11, 12. ы cannot stand after ж, which turns it into и. ь after final ж has not the effect on preceding vowels described in § 14. ж is always used to represent French j, e. g. журнать = magazine (from French journal), and with д (дж) to represent English j (cf. § 18). The form of this letter is of unknown origin.

# § 20. 3 3 = z

is pronounced as in English, except when medial before a voiceless consonant and final, i.e. as or 35, when it becomes voiceless itself, i. e. s, as in sun. The effect of a palatal vowel on 3 when medial is merely to soften it by adding to it a y-sound, but in an unaccented syllable this is scarcely noticeable. Examples: 3ποπ malicious, pron. zloi, 3épkaπo = mirror, pron. zyérkala, 3μμά = winter, pron. zimá, γκάστ = decree, pron. ukas (u = Italian u). In words where 3 is followed by μ (q.v.) the latter absorbs the former, e.g. ½σμγ = I ride, pron. yézhu, with emphasis on the zh. Whenever the prepositions paz-(= dis-), bos-(= up), and μμα-(= down), which are only used in composition, are compounded with a word beginning with a voiceless consonant (except c), the 3 is pronounced and written as c; e.g. packóπt = dissent, pron. raskól, bocxóπt = ascent, pron. vaskhót, but pasckást = tale, pron. raskás.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 21. $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{\kappa} = k$

is pronounced as in English, except before  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ , and  $\kappa$ , when it is usually pronounced kh (i.e. like ch in Scotch loch). Examples:  $\kappa \kappa \kappa = how$ , pron. kak;  $\kappa \kappa \kappa = by$  whom, pron. kyem (one syllable), but  $\kappa \kappa \kappa = kom = kom$ , pron. khkam (two syllables);  $\kappa = kom$ , pron. kinto.  $\kappa$  cannot be followed by  $\kappa$  (which it turns into  $\kappa$ ) nor by  $\kappa$ .

# § 22. $\mathbf{J} \mathbf{J} \mathbf{J} = l$

is pronounced in two very distinct ways, according to whether it is followed by a hard or a soft (palatal) vowel. Before a hard vowel, or before a consonant followed by a hard vowel, it is pronounced as in Yorkshire or Scotland, i. e. with the tip of the tongue curling upwards, leaving a space between the tongue and the roof of the mouth. This is often called guttural I, but it is really rather cerebral than guttural. Some Russians pronounce it without touching, or barely touching, the palate with the tip of the tongue, so that it sounds like w. The Polish deep I, written in Polish I, is almost always thus pronounced. Those Englishmen who find it difficult to pronounce the deep Russian I as I, can solve the difficulty at the imminent risk of being mistaken for West. Russians, by fearlessly pronouncing I before hard vowels like English w, e.g. лампа = lamp, pron. lampa, wampa (a of course as in Italian); луна́ = moon, pron. lunâ, wunâ; лобъ = forehead, pron. lop, wop; лось = reindeer, pron. lois, wois; ёлка = Christmas-tree.

pron. yoʻlka, yoʻwka; ягунь = liar, pron. lgun, wgun; быль = he was, pron. byl, very much like the English word bill, or byw, biww; была́ = she was, pron. byla, or bywa (y here having the sound of y in hymn). It is also like the second l in little.

Before a soft (palatal) vowel, on the other hand, I is pronounced like Italian gl in e.g. degli, or like Spanish ll in e.g. llama, i.e. it is palatal, formed by pressing the whole front part of the tongue against the palate. E. g. лёдь = ice, pron. lyot; ли́па = lime-tree. pron. lyipa; лью = I pour, pron. lyu; люди = people, pron. lyidyi. Final no is rather difficult for Englishmen to pronounce, but the throwing-back of the i-sound, contained in the b, on to the preceding vowel is very marked and makes it easier, e.g. боль = pain, pron. very much like boil, but giving the I the value of Italian al. In followed by other consonants is still more difficult to pronounce, but it is made easier by running the preceding svllable right into it, e.g. на льду = on the ice, is pronounced approximately naildú, ai having the value of ai in Cairo, нельзя = it is impossible, pron. nyalezyá in two syllables, -yale- like the American Yale, and I having the value of Italian gl. I followed by a consonant and a palatal vowel is also pronounced like Italian gl. e. g. дже-пророжь = false prophet, pron. lzheprarok. Foreign names ending in l are written in Russian with final MB, e.g. BDECCEMB = Brussels, but foreign words which are regarded as having become Russian are written with IL, e.g. Kanntáj = capital (sc. money).

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 23. M = m

is pronounced as in English. Final MD is difficult to pronounce; it is of course softened, just as m in the English word mew, but in rapid conversation this is scarcely noticeable. It is easier for foreigners to express palatalization by emphasizing the throwing-back of the i-sound, e.g. cemb = seven, pron. syame, syaim, like the English words same, aim; Bócemb = eight, pron. vóisyame, which in rapid conversation becomes vóisim or vóisyem. In the syllable MM the y-sound is very difficult to express after M, even for Russians, and is therefore inaudible, e.g. Mámo = past (prep.), pron. mima.

# § 24. $\mathbf{H} \mathbf{H} = n$

is pronounced as in English. The same applies to final нь as to final мь; the sound нь is, however, more familiar to Englishmen as

it is exactly the same as French and Italian gn, e. g. Boulogne is written in Russian Byjohb. In Russian words ending in Hb the palatalization is if anything more marked than in those with final Mb, and the throwing-back of the *i*-sound is equally marked, e. g. kohb = steed, is pronounced koigne, like Boulogne, though in rapid conversation it sounds like the English word coin pronounced very short, just as Boulogne spoken by many Englishmen sounds like boo-loin. In the syllable Hb the y-sound must always be expressed, though it is difficult for Englishmen to do so, e. g. chimh = with them, is pronounced snyimi, -yi- having the sound of the English word ye.

The Russian H is derived from the Greek N. The reason why it is in Russian written H is that while the middle stroke of our N has remained sloping, the middle stroke of the same letter in Russian has become horizontal; in Old Bulgarian the letter was written H and in Russian it has become H.

# § 25. II n = p

is pronounced as in English. Palatalized  $\pi$ , i.e.  $\pi$  before a palatal vowel, is pronounced simply py-, as in English piano, except in the syllable  $\pi\pi$ , where it is almost impossible to express the y-sound, e.g.  $\pi\phi$  = pen, pron. like the French word Pierrot, but  $\pi\pi\pi\pi = he$  drank, pron. like the English word peel. Final  $\pi\pi$  is very rare; it is difficult for an Englishman to express the  $\pi$ , but its effect on the preceding vowel is obvious, e.g.  $\pi\pi\pi = chain$ , pron. tsyape (one syllable), -ape as in English tape, but  $\pi\pi\pi = flail$ , pron. tsyep, as in English tepid.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 26. P p = r

is pronounced as in Scotland; it is always rolled with the tip of the tongue, and never under any circumstances pronounced as in English or German. Exactly the same applies to palatalized p and to pm as to palatalized п and m, e.g. Ряза́нь = Ryazan, pron. Ryazagne (-gne as in French); but Рига = Riga, ri- as in English reel, but rolling the r. Medial and final ps is difficult to pronounce, but is made easier by the marked throwing-back of the i-sound, e.g. царь = tsar', pron. tsair, rolling the r(ai as in Cairo), Ха́рьковь = Harkov, pron. Hairkaf (ai again as in Cairo), eps = the name of the letter b, pron. yair, rolling the r (ai as in the English word ain),

but eps = the name of the letter s, pron. yare, rolling the r (like the English word fare).

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

§ 27.  $\mathbf{C} \mathbf{c} = s$ 

is pronounced always like English voiceless s in e.g. second. Palatalized c is simply s + the y-sound, which latter is, however, inaudible in the syllable cm, e.g. cfm = seed, pron. syémya, but cma = strength, pron. sila or siva; cmay = I sit, pron. sizhú. The same applies to medial and final cb as to pb and mb, e.g. móchka = pug, pron. móiska, oi as in the English word moist, though the throwing-back of the i-sound is not always so easy, e.g. Pycb = the old name of Russia, pron. Rúis, in one syllable, u as oo in English, with a slight i-sound between the u and s, which gives the s a somewhat minced or affected character. After a palatal vowel the effect of final b is only noticeable in the attenuation of the s, e.g. 600cb = I fear (where -cb is the reflexive pronoun), pron. bayús; mówcb = I wash myself, pron. móyus; in these cases the y-sound after the final c is distinctly audible, but very difficult for foreigners to reproduce.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

§ 28. T T = t

Initial and medial т before a palatal vowel is, on the other hand, not inter-dental or dental, but strongly palatalized, i.e. pronounced like ty in e.g. let you, e.g. ты́о = body, pron. tyélo or tyéwo; итты́ = to go (on foot), pron. ityí; тебѣ = to thee, pron. tyebyé; те́мно = dark, (adv.), pron. tyómna.

Initial or medial  $\mathbf{r}$  followed by  $\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$  consonant is difficult to pronounce, e.g.  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{EMA}} = darkness$ , is only one syllable, pron.  $tym \hat{a}$ . Final  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{B}}$  is pronounced in the same way and is if anything more difficult for most beginners; it is of very common occurrence, as it is the ordinary infinitival ending, e.g.  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{OBO}}$  put  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{EMA}}$ , prongavarity, in three syllables, the  $\mathbf{y}$  of course not forming a syllable, but merely palatalizing the  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{EMA}}$ . This is very important, as mispronunciation alters the meaning of the word, e.g.  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{OBO}}$  points (hard) =  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{EMA}}$  (3rd sing.), pron.  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{EMA}}$  gavaritt.

The pronunciation of final HB and TB is made more difficult by the fact that there is not with them, except when accented, any throwing-back of the i-sound on to the preceding vowel, e.g. ABRIB = to do, must not be pronounced dyélait but dyélaty (in two syllables with palatalized t); but, N.B., MATE = mother, pron. maity in one syllable with palatalized t. For Englishmen in particular it is important to remember that final TB is neither t nor ts nor ch, but palatalized, just as it is in the English word actual; the difficulty is to pronounce the palatalized t at the end of a word with no vowel following and without letting it form an extra syllable.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek; the italic form m (and that of the written capital) is the result of the gradual lengthening downwards of the two ends of the bar across the top of the letter T. T.

# § 29. $\Phi \Phi = f$

is pronounced as in English, and occurs only in words of foreign origin, e. g. φοτότραφτ = photographer, pron. fatógraf.

This letter is derived directly from the Greek.

# § 30. $\mathbf{X} \mathbf{x} = kh$

is pronounced like ch in Scotch or German loch by some, but by others more like the English aspirate h. X cannot be followed by h (which it turns into h) nor by h. It is always used to render the Greek h (from which it is derived), e.g. apxeolória = h archaeology.

# § 31. III n = ts

is pronounced as in English lots, e. g. Царицынъ (lit. Tsaritsa's or Empress's), a town on the Volga, pron. Tsaritsyn: Нарское Село́

(lit. Tsar's or Emperor's village), a town near Petrograd, pron. Tsárskoye Syeló. It is also used to render the Latin c before e, i, and ae, e. g. Цицеро́нъ = Cicero, Це́зарь = Caesar.

The form of the letter is of unknown origin.

§ 32.  $\Psi = ch$ 

is pronounced as in English church, except that it is a palatal consonant, whereas ours is not. The result of this is that there is a tendency to pronounce even the hard vowels when they follow u as if they were palatal, though orthography forbids the use of u and w after u; in practice this palatal pronunciation of the hard vowels is only noticeable when the latter are accented, e.g. uýgo = wonder, miracle, is pronounced almost as if it were uógo, but in the plural uygecáthe y-sound is not audible. In cannot stand after u, and it is important to remember that u after u is pronounced like the ee in cheese, not like the i in chill, e.g. in the word uúcro = clean (N., sing. and adverb). e (b) after u is pronounced ye if accented, e.g. Uéxoba (the dramatic author), pron. Chyekhof, but when unaccented the y-sound is scarcely audible (cf. § 11). Lafter final u has the effect on preceding vowels already described in § 14.

The form of this letter is of Semitic origin.

§ 33. III  $\mathbf{m} = sh$ 

is pronounced as in the word *English*.  $\square$  cannot stand after  $\square$ , which turns it into  $\square$ . For the pronunciation of e,  $\square$ , and  $\tilde{e}$  after  $\square$  cf. §§ 11, 12.  $\square$  after final  $\square$  has the effect on preceding vowels already described in § 14, but it is important to remember that the 2nd sing. of the presents of all verbs which without exception ends in - $\square$  is always pronounced as if it were written - $\square$  is.

The form of this letter is of Semitic origin.

# § 34. III, m = shch

is broadly speaking pronounced as in Ashchurch, but it is to be noticed that it is pronounced in various ways by various people. By many it is pronounced shch as described, but by many others like a very emphatic sh with a palatal quality; thus the word ma = cabbage-soup (a national dish) is by some pronounced shchi (i as in cheese), by others shyi (in one syllable, the i as in cheese).

Being a compound of m and u it is made palatal by the palatal quality inherent in u, and thus all vowels are pronounced after it as they are after u, cf. § 32. M cannot stand after m, which turns it into m. Lafter final m has the effect on preceding vowels already described in § 14.

The form of this letter in Old Bulgarian was  $\mu$ , that is to say a m superimposed on a  $\tau$ , and in that language it had the value of sht, which it still retains in Modern Bulgarian.

§ 35.  $\Theta \ \mathbf{o} = f$ 

is the Greek  $\theta$  and is called in Russian emtá (pron. fta). It is only used in words and names of Greek origin, e.g.  $\Theta$ omá = Thomas, pron. Fama;  $\Theta$ eogóci $\pi$  = Theodosia (a town in the Crimea, pron. Feodósia).

The Greek  $\xi$  is represented in Russian by кс, e. g. Алекса́ндръ = Alexander, аксіо́ма = axiom. The Latin x by кз, e.g. экза́мень = examination (educational), or кс, e.g. эксплоата́ція = exploitation.

### PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

§ 36. In the foregoing, §§ 4-35, the ordinary English letters only have been used to render the pronunciation of the Russian vowels and consonants. This has been done for the sake of general utility, but it must be understood that such a method of transcription is not only unscientific but also only approximately accurate. Appended is a list of the Russian sounds already enumerated and described together with their approximate equivalents in the signs currently used for phonetic spelling in England for the benefit of those students who are acquainted with the latter; needless to say that in a work of this size neither the list of Russian sounds nor that of their equivalents can pretend to include all the variations of pronunciation which occur, variations which are largely conditioned by the varying rates of spoken speech.

Russian letter.		netic ription.
а •	followed by hard vowel or final	a
99	followed by a palatal vowel or by b	a

Russian	Phonetic transcription.
letter.	Transcription.
$\mathbf{a} \begin{cases} \mathbf{w}\mathbf{h} \\ \mathbf{o}\mathbf{b} \end{cases}$	en pronounced like the scure vowel in English
ə fol	lowed by a hard vowel &
" foll	owed by a palatal vowel e
ы	
0	when accented o
,,	when unaccented e
y	$\mathbf{u}$
я	ja or ja
e ( <b>*</b> )	j€ or je
и	i or ji
ë	jэ (after ж, ч, ш, щ = э)
ю	${f ju}$
ь	상으면 마스레스, 그리다 생산이다고요?
б	<b>b</b>
В	
T	면이로 가고면이 말라는 사회 <b>양</b> 이라고 하고?
д	g d
<b>3</b> #6	
3	$ar{z}$ . The first of $ar{z}$ is the second constant $ar{z}$
ĸ	$\mathbf{k}$
Л	
M	$\mathbf{m}$
H	$oldsymbol{n}$
π	$[p_{ij}]_{ij} = [p_{ij}]_{ij} = [p_{ij}]_{ij$
p	
G	
T	
ф	교회를 보고 하는 하는 차를 되는 것으로.
x	회에 되는 경우를 하는 사람이 없다. 그 사람이 다
ц	Here, the particle $oldsymbol{t}_{ij}$ , that $oldsymbol{t}_{ij}$ , the $oldsymbol{t}_{ij}$
ų	
m	프로마 (Barrier Hall) (19 <b>1</b> 1년 - 라마티
щ	f't'f' or ftf' or f
Ð	The interest of the interest ${f f}$ . The interest is

### THE ACCENT

§ 37. As has already been remarked, the accent in Russian is mobile, i.e. it may fall on any syllable. There are certain rules which govern it in certain cases, but their value is discounted by the existence of numerous exceptions. Correct accentuation is one of the greatest difficulties that Russian presents to the foreigner, as a misplaced accent may lead to disconcerting errors; at the best a foreigner who puts the accent on the wrong syllable will merely not be understood at all. The difficulty is increased by the fact that neither in writing nor in print is the accent marked, and in addition by the fact that in many cases words, though spelt identically, have quite different meanings according to where the accent is placed, e.g. мука = four, but мука = torment; плачу = I pay, but плачу = I weep; воды = waters (nom.pl.), but воды = some water (gen. sing.), and many others.

Although the Russians talk much more musically than the English, the Russian accent is not a musical, but a stress accent. The accented syllable is always very strongly emphasized (in contrast to French), and the unaccented syllables consequently lose in some cases the full value of their vowels, e.g. unaccented o is always pronounced a (like our u in but), e.g. gopora = road, pron. daróga; unaccented я like i or e, e. g. пятьдесять = fifty (lit. cinq It should be mentioned that in a dizaines), pron. pidyesyát. number of cases the same word is often accented differently by different but equally well educated Russians, e.g. тёмно and темно = dark (ady.), и́наче and ина́че = otherwise, воро́та and ворота́ = gateway, and also that the accent is often withdrawn altogether from the noun by a preposition governing it, e.g. 3a pyky = by the hand (руку = acc. sing. of рука = hand), на голову = on the head (sc. on to; го́лову = acc. sing. of голова́ = head, во́-время = in good time (the hyphen is used to distinguish it from BO BPÉMH+gen.= during ...), and sometimes from the past tense of a verb by the negative particle, e.g. не быль, не было = was not, не даль = did not give, though such cases both as regards nouns and verbs are the exception rather than the rule.

Failing the help viva voce of a competent teacher, beginners are recommended to read only accented texts, of which many have been published, in order to get used to the accent and also to read poetry, where the position of the accent is always indicated by the metre.

A list of accented texts published is given in the bibliography at the beginning of this book. By observing carefully the accents on the most commonly used cases and parts of the most commonly used nouns, verbs, &c., the student will learn where to place the accent far more quickly than by learning rules and exceptions which always contain forms that are rarely used. The accent is invariably marked in all dictionaries, even in those Russian dictionaries printed in Russia for the exclusive use of Russians, but in Russian grammars printed in Russia it is usually omitted.

### THE DECLENSION OF THE SUBSTANTIVES

§ 38. There are three genders in Russian—Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter; and two numbers—Singular and Plural, though traces of the Dual are numerous in the declensions.

There is no definite or indefinite article in Russian corresponding to our the, a, an. The context is usually sufficient to indicate which is meant, whether the or a; otherwise recourse must be had to the demonstrative or indefinite pronouns. The demonstrative pronoun is sometimes used as a definite article after the noun which it qualifies, though only in the colloquial language (cf. § 48).

There are six cases in Russian, viz. Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Instrumental, and Locative. This last is sometimes called the Prepositional, because it is never used except after one of the five prepositions: o = concerning, BB = in, BB = on, BB = in the presence of, BO = after. The Instrumental can be used without a preposition, when it denotes the instrument or agent by means of which anything is done. It is also used after certain prepositions, and then loses the meaning which the name implies. For the remains of the Vocative in modern Russian cf. § 39, Obs. 9.

# § 39. Masculine Nouns having the Nom. Sing. in -ъ. -ь. -й.

Almost all masculines end in -b. -b. or -H. All nouns which end in -ъ and -й are masculine.

All nouns which end in -a are called hard, those ending in -a or -n soft: those case-endings of a hard noun which begin with a hard vowel, begin with a soft vowel if the noun is soft, otherwise they are similar for both hard and soft nouns.

A peculiarity of the masculine nouns is that in the case of animate things the acc. sing, is the same as the gen, sing, while in the case of inanimate things it is the same as the nom, sing.: this rule applies also to the plural.

Examples: (hard) столь = table; народь = people, nation; (soft) царь = tsar'; оле́нь = deer; сара́й = coach-house.

### Singular

		Dirig iii iii		
N.	столъ	народъ	царь	оле́нь
G.	стола́	наро́да	царя́	оле́ня
D.	столу́	наро́ду	царю	оле́ню
A.	столъ	наро́дъ	царя́	оле́ня
I.	столо́мъ	наро́домъ	царёмъ	оле́немъ
L.	столѣ	народъ	царѣ	оле́нъ̀
		Plural.		
N.	столы	народы	цари́	оле́ни
G.	столо́въ	наро́довъ	царе́й	оле́ней
D.	стола́мъ	наро́дамъ	царя́мъ	оденямъ
A.	столы	народы	царе́й	оле́ней
I.	стола́ми	народами	царя́ми	оде́нями
L.	столахъ	наро́дахъ	царя́хъ	оле́няхъ

α.	,
Singu	$\alpha r$

	Bingular.	Piurai.
N.	сарай	сара́и
G.	сара́я	сара́евъ
D.	сараю	сараямт
Α.	capáři	сара́и
I.	сара́емъ	сараями
L.	capář	сараяхт

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The acc. sing. and plur. of all masculine nouns is the same as the nom. sing. and plur. in the case of inanimate, and the same as the gen. sing. and plur. in the case of animate things: thus the acc. sing. of стоть is стоть, but of царь—царя́.
- 2. The masc nouns in -ь have borrowed the ending of the gen. plur. -ей (e. g. царей) from another declension.
- 3. The nom. acc. pl. of all masc. nouns in -къ, -гъ, -хъ, -чъ, -цъ, -щъ, -жъ, -шъ, end in -ки, -ги, -хи, -ци, -жи, -ши (i. e. take -и instead of -ы), because ы cannot stand after a guttural or after ч, щ, ж, ог ш, е.g. мальчикь = boy, nom. pl. мальчики; ножь = knife, nom. pl. ножи; ключь = key, nom. pl. ключи́.
- 4. The inst. sing. and gen. plur. of all mase. nouns in -жъ, -чъ, -шъ, -шъ, -шъ, епи respectively in -емъ (-ёмъ if accented) and -ей, е. g. това́рищъ, = companion, inst. sing. това́рищемъ, gen. pl. това́рищей; ножъ = knife, inst. sing. ножёмъ (pron. nazhóm), gen. pl. ноже́й; ключъ = key, inst. sing. ключёмъ, gen. pl. ключе́й; экипа́жъ = carriage, inst. sing. экипа́жемъ, gen. pl. экипа́жей. All these nouns were originally soft and have only latterly become hard. In the same way the nouns ending in -чъ were originally soft; of these, those which have the last syllable accented have become hard throughout, e.g. оте́цъ = father, makes inst. sing. отцо́мъ and gen. plur. отцо́яъ, but those which are not accented on the last syllable still make their inst. sing. in -емъ, and their gen. plur in -евъ, е. g. мъ́сящъ = moon or month, inst. sing. мъ́сящемъ and gen. plur. мъ́сящемъ
- 5. A large number of words which contain e or o in the last syllable of the nom. sing. lose this vowel in the oblique cases when, while on the e or o in the nom., the accent afterwards passes to the case-ending, and sometimes also when the accent throughout is on the first syllable; the emphasis on the accented syllable is so strong that the weak vowel of the unaccented syllable disappears, e.g. οτέμε = father, gen. sing. οτμά, dat. sing. οτμή, nom. pl. οτμά; βάμοκε = castle, βάμκα; προρέμε = palace, gen. sing. προρμά; πεσόκε = sand, πεσκά; κυτόκε = piece, κυτά; πεμε = day, gen. sing. πημ. In περε = lion, πέμε = ice, and πέμε = flax, e becomes ε to show that the π remains soft, e.g. πέμε = ice, gen. sing. πεμα, but ποδε = forehead, gen. sing. πόα, with hard π. The e is retained in cases where

its omission would cause an excessive accumulation of consonants, e.g. мертве́ць = corpse makes gen. sing. мертвеца́. A few words in -е́й make gen. sing. in -ья, dat. in -ью, nom. pl. -ьи, &c.; e.g. руче́й = stream, gen. sing. ручь́й, also воробе́й = sparrow, мураве́й = ant, and солове́й = nightingale, nom. pl. соловь́й, &c.

Words in -ёмъ make their gen. sing. in -йма, dat. sing. -йму, &c.; e.g. заёмъ = loan, gen. займа́. Бое́цъ = fighter, gen. бойца́, and за́нцъ = hare, by analogy, makes за́йца.

In other cases where the same process apparently occurs the e and o have merely been inserted in the nom. sing. to make pronunciation easier, e. g. béteps = wind, gen. sing. bétepa; ого́нь = fire, огна; ўголь = corner, угла́, ўголь = coal, ўгля.

- 6. Masculine nouns denoting divisible matter have a gen. sing. in -y (-10) when the gen. is used in a partitive sense, e. g. фунть ча́ю = a pound of tea, from чай = tea; ма́ло наро́ду = few people (lit. little of people), but ме́ніе наро́да = the opinion of the people, though this gen. has become usual in a number of cases where there is no idea of partition, e. g. сь ва́ду = by sight, безъ то́лку = without sense, сь на́зу = from below, сь ве́рху = from above, о́ть роду = from one's birth, а́зъ дому = out of the house (or home).
- 7. Several nouns have a loc. sing. in -ý, always accented, which is used after the prepositions  $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}=in$  and  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a}=on$ , e.g.  $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}$  cardý = in the garden,  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a}$  moctý = on the bridge,  $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}$ ...  $\mathbf{rog}$ ý = in the year...,  $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}$  mécý = in the forest,  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a}$  deperý = on the bank (or shore),  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a}$  myrý = in the meadow,  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a}$  kpań = on the edge (from kpaň),  $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}$  yraý = in the corner (nom. ýrom),  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a}$  moxý = on the floor, and others. Cf. § 68.
- N.B. After the prepositions o (obs) = about and npu = near the loc. in -b is used.
- 8. Several nouns have a nom. pl. in -á, -á, which is always accented. This is really the old nom. dual, but its use has extended from the dual to the plural; e.g. глазь = eye, nom. pl. глаза; берегь = bank, nom. pl. берега=the two banks of a river, but also = the shores of the ocean; poгь = horn, nom. pl. porá; бокь = side, nom. pl. бока; also вечерь = evening has nom. pl. вечера; домъ = house, дома; голось = voice, голоса; колоколь = bell, колокола; городь = town makes города; докторь = doctor, доктора; профессорь = professor, профессора; учитель = teacher, учитела; въкь = age, century, годь = year, and край = country have both въки and въка, годы and года, кран and край. A few have two forms of the

nom. pl. with different meanings: posocb = hair, has posoca = hairs. and волосы=hair (coll.), a head of hair; образь = form, species. manner, has образа = holy images, and образы = forms: хльбь = bread, has хльба = the crops, and хльбы = loaves; цвыть = colour. has ubbrá = colours and ubbrú = flowers (for the sing. the diminutive form upbroks is used, in the sense of a single flower or blossom): мъхъ = (1) bellows, has nom. pl. мъхи, = (2) fur, has мъха = furs. Several masculine nouns have a nom. pl. in -ья, which is really a feminine collective sing. in form, though used as a masculine nom. pl. Thus брать = brother makes nom. pl. братья; стуль = chair, nom. pl. стулья; листь = leaf or sheet of paper makes листья = leaves, leafage (but regularly листы = sheets of paper); другь = friend, nom. pl. друзья; мужь = husband, мужья; зять = brotherin-law or son-in-law, зятья; князь = prince, князья. The last four make their gen. pl. in -ей, like царь, e.g. друзей, while братья makes gen. pl. братьевь, стуль-стульевь, as do some other less common nom. plurals in -bs; all, however, from the dat. pl. onwards go alike, e.g. друзьямь, inst. pl. друзьями, loc. pl. друзьяхъ.

Сынъ = son has nom. pl. сыновья, gen. pl. сыновей, dat. pl. сыновымъ, &c. Сосе́дъ = neighbour and чёрть = devil make their plural like парь throughout, nom. pl. сосе́дъ, gen. pl. сосе́дъ, &c.

A number of masculine nouns in -инъ, denoting individuals, make nom. pl. in -e and in the gen. pl. have no ending : граждани́нъ = citizen makes nom. pl. гражда́не, gen. pl. гражда́нь, from the dat. pl. onwards being regular, viz. гражда́намъ, &c.; англича́нинъ = Englishman, nom. pl. англича́не, gen. pl. англича́нь. Thus also тата́ринъ = Tartar, nom. pl. тата́ры; болга́ринъ = Bulgarian, болга́ры; датча́нинъ = Dane, датча́не (also accented да́тчанинъ, да́тчане); москвита́нинъ = citizen of Moscow, москвита́не; ри́млянинъ = Boman, ри́мляне; слава́нинъ = Slav, слава́не; дворяни́нъ = nobleman, двора́не; крестьа́нинъ = peasant, крестьа́не, and (not to be confused with the last, though of identical derivation) христіа́нинъ = Christian, nom. pl. христіа́не.

Тоспода́нъ = Mr., makes nom. pl. господа́ = Messieurs, 'Gentlemen!' (also 'Ladies and Gentlemen!'), gen. pl. госпо́дъ, dat. pl. госпо́да́мъ, &c. Хоза́инъ = host, householder, makes nom. pl. хоза́ева = (1) hosts and (2) host and hostess, gen. pl. хоза́евъ, dat. pl. хоза́евамъ, &c. Several regular masculine nom. plurals make

their gen. pl. without any ending, as the above; this is really the old gen. pl. of this declension, while the form termed 'regular' in -овь, -овь was borrowed from another declension. Thus волосы = hair (collective) makes gen. pl. волось; разь = time, stroke, once, gen. pl. разь; солдать = soldier, gen. pl. солдать; глазь = eye, gen. pl. глазь; футь = foot (measure), gen. pl. футь, ог футовь; аршинь = yard (measure), gen. pl. аршинь.

The gen. pl. of YEXOBÉRE = human being, the only case of the plural of this word which is used, is YEXOBÉRE, and it is only used

after numerals, e.g. сто человъкъ = a hundred people.

9. Богь = God has a voc. sing. Боже, otherwise it is declined regularly, like стоть, viz. Бо́га, &с. Госпо́дь = Lord, has a voc. sing. Го́спода, and though soft in the nom., is from the gen. sing. onwards declined like стоть, viz. Го́спода, &с. Христо́сь = Christ, is from the gen. sing. onwards declined like стоть, viz. Христа́, &с. The old voc. of оте́ць = father occurs in the phrase О́тче нашть = Pater noster.

# § 40. Feminine Nouns having the nom. sing. in -a, -s.

Almost all nouns ending in -a, -n are feminine. All those which end in -a are called hard, those ending in -n soft; those case-endings of a hard noun which begin with a hard vowel begin with a soft vowel if the noun is soft, otherwise they are similar for both hard and soft nouns.

As regards the accusative case, the acc. sing. of all nouns in -a, -n is quite different from the nom. sing., whether the thing be animate or inanimate. The acc. pl. of feminine nouns in -a, -n is the same as the nom. pl. in the case of inanimate, the same as the gen. pl. in the case of animate things. This is no doubt due to the influence of the masculine declension.

Examples: (hard) же́нщина = woman, сестра́ = sister. (soft) земля́ = land, а́рмія = army. Singular.

N.	же́нщина	сестра	земля́	а́рмія
G.	же́нщины	, сестры	земли́	а́рміи
D.	же́нщинѣ	сестрѣ	земль́	а́рміи
A.	же́нщину	сестру́	зе́млю	а́рмію
ī.	же́нщиной	сестрой	землёй	а́рміей
L.	же́нщинѣ	cecrpś	землѣ	а́рміп

#### Plural.

N.	же́нщины	сёстры	зе́мли	áрміи
G.	же́нщинъ	сестёръ	земе́ль	а́рмій
D.	женщинамъ	сестрамъ	земля́мъ	а́рміямъ
A.	же́нщинъ	сестёръ	земли	а́рміи
I.	женщинами	сестрами	земля́ми	имкімда
L.	же́нщинахъ	сестрахъ	земля́хъ	а́рміяхъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The inst. sing. of fem. nouns in -a, -n has two forms, the short -on, -en and the long -on, -en. The latter is the older and is still often used in poetry when an additional syllable is required, but in the colloquial language the shorter form is almost always used.
- 2. The gen. pl. of all fem. nouns ending in a vowel+ $\pi$ , which case would end in  $\pi$  if the last letter of the stem were a consonant, is always written with an  $\pi$  and is a diphthong, e.g. mé $\pi = neck$  makes gen. pl. me $\pi$ , ápmi $\pi = army$  makes ápmi $\pi$ .

The gen. pl. of fem. nouns ending in -ья́ ends in -є́й; e. g. статья́ = newspaper article, gen. pl. стате́й. Да́дя = uncle also has gen. pl. да́дей, and судья́ = judge, gen. pl. су́дей (судья́ is otherwise declined just like земля́, viz. gen. sing. судьи́, nom. pl. су́дьи, &c.).

3. The dat. and loc. sing. of fem. nouns ending in -iя ends in -iя, e.g. а́рмія = army, dat. and loc. sing. а́рмін; реда́гія = religion, реда́гін; Россія = Russia, Россія; А́нглія = England, А́нглін.

Many fem. Christian names are spelt in two ways in the nom. sing., either -iπ or -ьπ; if spelt in the former way, the dat. and loc. sing. ends in -iπ; if in the latter, then in -ьħ: e.g. Cóφiπ = Sophia, dat. and loc. sing. Cóφiπ, but Cóφьπ, dat. and loc. sing. Cóφiπ; the former spelling is preferable.

- 4. The gen. sing. and nom. acc. pl. of all fem. nouns in -ка, -ка, -ка, -ча, -ща, -жа, -ша end in -ки, -ки, -чи, -щи, -жи, -ши because ы cannot stand after a guttural or after ч, ш, ж, от ш.
- 5. The inst. sing. of all fem. nouns ending in -ца, -ча, -ща, -жа, -ша ends in -ой (sometimes written -ей) if the accent falls on the ending, and in -ей if the accent falls on the root, e.g. Царица = Tsaritsa has inst. sing. царицей, but душа́ = soul has inst. sing. душо́й.

6. A number of words whose stems end in two consonants insert a vowel between these two consonants in the gen. pl. in order to facilitate their pronunciation; e.g. сестра = sister has gen. pl. сестръ; ко́шка = cat—ко́шекъ; земля = land—земе́лъ; дере́вня = cillage—дереве́нъ; ба́рышня = young lady—ба́рышень. A few such soft nouns become hard in the gen. pl., e.g. пъ́сня = song, gen. pl. пъ́сенъ; ба́сня = fable—ба́сенъ; ба́шня = tover—ба́шенъ. Nouns with ь in the stem lengthen this to e in the gen. pl., e.g. судьба́ = fate, gen. pl. суде́бъ; those with й in the stem likewise, e.g. копе́йка = kopek (the coin), gen. pl. копе́екъ (also spelt копейка, копе́екъ).

7. It is to be noted that there are a few masculine nouns and a number of names (mostly diminutives) ending in -a and -я and declined like feminine nouns: сдуга́ = male servant, оноша = youth, дая = uncle, судьа́ = judge, убійца = murderer, пьаница = drunkard.

Алёша = diminutive of Алексвії = Alexis; Ваня = dim. of Иванъ = John; Воло́дя = dim. of Владиміръ = Vladimir; Ко́ля = dim. of Никола́й = Nicholas; Маша = dim. of Михайлъ = Michael; Пе́тя = dim. of Пётръ = Peter; Саша = dim. of Алекса́ндръ = Alexander; Серёжа = dim. of Сергы́й = Sergius, and many others; notice also the name Ильа́ = Elias.

# § 41. Neuter Nouns having the nom. sing. in -o, -e.

Almost all neuter nouns end in -o or -e. All nouns which end in -o or -e are neuter.

All nouns which end in -o are called kard, those ending in -e soft.

Examples: (hard) село́ = village.

		Singular.	
N.	село	мо́ре	имъ́ніе
G.	села	мо́ря	кіндми
D.	селу́	мо́рю	имѣ́нію
A.	село́	мо́ре	имѣ́ніе
I.	селомъ	мо́ремъ	имѣніемъ
L.	селъ́	мо́рѣ	имѣніи

<sup>1</sup> N.B. прислуга = a male or female servant is feminine.

N. сёла

G cëm

Plural.	
моря́	имѣнія
море́й	имѣ́ній
мори́мъ	имъніямъ

 D. сёламъ
 мори́мъ
 имѣніямъ

 A. сёла
 мори́
 имѣнія

 I. сёлами
 мори́ми
 имѣніями

 L. сёлахъ
 мори́мъ
 имѣніяхъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

1. The neuter nouns in -e have borrowed the ending of the gen. pl. -en (e. g. mopén) from another declension.

Nouns in -ье as a rule make their gen. pl. in -ей, e.g. ружьё = gun, gen. pl. ружей, but платье = dress or suit, makes платьевь, and куппанье = dish (sc. the food)—куппаньевь.

Abstract nouns in -ie can also be spelt -ье, e. g. жела́ніе от жела́нье = wish; in the former case they are declined like имъ́ніе and in the latter like мо́ре.

- 2. Neuter nouns in -че, -ще, -же, -ще, -це follow the hard declension, but make their inst. sing. in -емь, е g. училище = school, inst. sing. училищемь, but gen. sing. училища, gen. pl. училищь.
- 3. A number of hard neuter nouns whose stems end in two consonants insert a vowel between these two consonants in the gen. pl. in order to facilitate their pronunciation, e.g. окно = window, gen. pl. о́конъ; письмо́ = letter—пи́семъ.

கீற்கு = egg makes gen. pl. என்ரு, = two syllables, while the nom. pl. is எற்கு.

4. A number of neuter nouns have unexpected forms in the pl., thus я́блоко = apple, nom. pl. я́блоки, gen. pl. я́блокь; илечо́ = shoulder, nom. pl. иле́чи, gen. pl. илечь; коль́но = knee, nom. pl. коль́ни, gen. pl. коль́ней; у́хо = ear makes у́ши, уше́й, о́ко = eye (poetic)—о́чи, оче́й; in the dat., inst., and loc. pl. these all follow село́, e.g. inst. pl. я́блоками, уша́ми, илеча́ми (the endings in -и are relics of the old neuter dual, the eyes, ears, and shoulders being naturally mentioned in the dual oftener than in the plural). Не́бо = heaven makes nom. pl. небеса́, gen. pl. небе́съ; чудо = miracle—чудеса́, чуде́съ, dat. pl. небе́са́мъ, чудеса́мъ, &с. О́блако = cloud has nom. pl. облака́, gen. pl. облако́въ; очки́ = spectacles has gen. pl. очко́въ; су́дно = vessel has nom. pl. суда́, gen. pl. судо́въ.

Де́рево = tree makes nom. pl. дере́вья, gen. pl. дере́вьевь, dat. pl. дере́вьямь, &c.; перо́ = feather, pen—пе́рья,—пе́рьевь, &c.; крыдо́ = wing—кры́лья, &c. There is a whole category of words which are neuter in the pl. and masculine in the sing.; these are all names of young living things, e.g. peóáta = children, (gen. pl. peóátь), peóëнокь = child; щена́та = puppies, sing. щена́кь; цыпла́та = young fowls, sing. цыплёнокь; жереба́та = foals, sing. жеребёнокь; тела́та = calves, sing. телёнокь; пороса́та = sucking-pigs, sing. поросёнокь; кота́та = kittens, sing. котёнокь; all these words in the sing. come under obs. 5, § 39, i.e. gen. acc. sing. ребёнка, &c.

## § 42. Feminine Nouns having the nom. sing. in -b.

A number of fem. nouns, especially abstract nouns derived from adjectives, such as págocth = joy, from page = glad, end in -b in the nom. and acc. sing. and form a distinct class, sometimes called the i-declension.

Example: ло́шадь = horse.

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	ло́шадь	ло́шади
G.	ло́шади	лошадей
D.	ло́шади	лошадя́мъ
A.	ло́шадь	лошадей
I.	ло́шадью	лошадьми
L.	ло́шади	лошадя́хъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The acc. pl. of names of animate things is the same as the gen. pl.; e.g. nom. pl. лошады = horses, gen. and acc. pl. лошады; nom. pl. люды = people, men and women (which is used as the plural of человых, cf. p. 49; the singular of люды is людь, a hard masculine noun, and means a people), gen. and acc. pl. людей, but кость = bone, gen. pl. костей, acc. pl. косты. The gen. pl. -ей of this declension is that borrowed by soft masc. and neuter nouns, cf. pp. 46, 52.
- 2. The regular inst. pl. of this declension, -ьми, has become replaced by that in -ями, borrowed from the soft fem. declension, in all words except the following: лошадь = horse, inst. pl. лошадьми, люди = people—людьми; кость = bone—костьми; дверь = door—дверьми; дбти = children—двтьми; but радость = joy—радостими; скорость = speed—скоростими; страсть = passion—страстими; сани (pl. only) = sledge—саними; часть = part—частими.

- 3. Those nouns which end in -чь, -щь, -жь, and -шь, and це́рковь = church (cf. the following paragraph) have the dat. pl. in -амь, the inst. pl. in -ами, and the loc. pl. in -амь; е. g. ночь = night—ночамь, ночамы, ночамь; вещь = thing—вещамь, вещамы, вещамы, церковь—церквамь, церквамь.
- 4. The five nouns це́рковь = church, любо́вь = lore, рожь = rye, ложь = lie, and вошь = louse lose the o in all the oblique cases except in the inst. sing. Тhus, gen. sing. це́ркви, любо́вь, ржи, &c., but inst. sing. це́рковью, любо́вью. When, however, Любо́вь is used as a Christian name, = Love, then it retains the o; gen. sing. Любо́ви, &c.
- 5. There is only one masc. noun in this declension: путь = way, (= road and means); it is declined exactly like ло́шадь except that the inst. sing. is путёмь and the inst. pl. путя́ми.
- 6. The noun са́жень = seven feet (measure) has gen. dat. sing. еаже́нн and gen. pl. са́женъ.
- 7. The two nouns math = mother, and gove = daughter are declined as follows:

S	lingular.	Plural.
N.	мать	ма́тери
G.	ма́терп	матере́й
D.	ма́тери	матеря́мъ
A.	мать	матерей
I.	ма́терь:o	матеря́ми
L.	ма́тери	матеря́хъ

The inst. pl. матерьми, дочерьми are also used. In the colloquial language the use of мать and дочь is often replaced by that of the diminutives матушка (ог мамаша) and дочка, which follow the ordinary fem. declension.

8. It is important to remember that the very common plurals моди = people and дъти = children, are declined like the plural of допаль.

# § 43. Neuter Nouns having the nom. sing. in -n.

A few neuter nouns end in -s in the nom. and acc. sing. and form a distinct class, sometimes called the n-declension.

Example: Bpéns = time.

### NEUTER NOUNS

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	время	времена
G.	времени	времёнъ
D.	времени	временамъ
A.	время	времена
I.	временемъ	временами
L.	времени	временахъ

Other common words in this declension are: имя = (Christian) name, племя = tribe, пламя = flame, бремя = burden, and свмя = seed (which has an irregular gen. pl. свмянь), знамя = standard, стремя = stirrup (gen. pl. стремянь).

The word  $gar \acute{a} = child$ , which is neuter, is declined in the singular as follows:

N. дитя

G. дитяти

D. дитя́ти

А. дитя

I. дитя́тей

L. дитяти

The plural great goes like лошади q.v.; in the colloquial language the alternative word for child, ребёнокъ (cf. p. 53), is more commonly used for the singular, child, and great more commonly for the plural, children.

The oblique cases of дити are very seldom used except in literature, and the plural of ребёнокъ, ребита, is specially used in the meaning comrades, boys, e. g. among soldiers, though also commonly used for children by the peasants.

# § 44. Note on the Terminations of Substantives.

All nouns ending in -ь, -й are masculine.

,, ,, -o, -e are neuter.

Nouns ", ", -ь are either masculine or feminine, e.g. царь = tsar, masc., but о́сень = autumn, fem.

Most nouns ending in -a, -я are feminine, but a few are masculine and neuter, e.g. слуг $\acute{a}=(man-)servant$ , судь $\acute{a}=judge$ , masc.,  $\acute{a}$ мя = (Christian) name, neut.

Common terminations denoting male and female agents are: masc. -икъ, -ель, -ень, -инъ, -унъ; fem. -ина, -иха, -ка, -унья, and others, e.g.:

#### Masculine.

прика́щикь salesman
учени́кь pupil
учи́тель teacher
иве́ць singer
саме́ць male (sc. beast)
купе́ць merchant
генера́ль general
господи́нь Mr., gentleman
граждани́нь citizen
врунь liar
госуда́рь sir, sovereign

баринь sir. master

# Feminine.

прика́щица
учени́ца
учени́ца
и́вы́ща
са́мка female (sc. beast)
купчи́ха (his wife)
генера́лына (his wife)
госпожа́ Mrs., lady
гражда́нка (fem.)
вру́нья
госуда́рыня lady, sovereign
ба́рыня lady, mistress

Notice that молоде́ць = clever chap, brave fellow (a very common word of praise), уминца = clever-boots, другь = friend, and человѣкъ = person, can be used of either males or females. The feminine of врать = doctor is же́ницина врачь = woman doctor.

Сf. also англичанка = Englishwoman (for masc. v. р. 48), німець, німка = German (рl. німцы, fem. німки). Similarly американець = American, венгерець = Hungarian, голландець = Dutchman, испанець = Spaniard, италіянець = Italian, норвежець = Norwegian, швейцарець = Swiss, ирландець = Irishman, and шотландець = Scot, all turn -ець into -ка for the fem. and -цы, -ки for the pl., gen. pl. = -цевь, -окь; португалець makes португалька, -лыцы = Portuguese; австріець, австрійка, -ійцы = Austrian; бельгіець, -ійка, -ійцы = Belgian; шведь, шведка, шведы = Swede; грекь, гречанка, греки = Greek; сербь, сербіянка, сербы = Servian; турокь, турчанка, турки = Turk; полякь, полька, поляки = Pole; чехь, чешка, чеки = Bohemian, and французь, француженка, французы = French.

# § 45. Diminutive Endings.

The extensive use of diminutives is one of the first things that strikes the beginner. Some words are only used in their diminutive forms, e.g. MALLHKL = boy, from which a further diminutive has had to be formed, viz. MALLHKHKA = little boy. In many cases the diminutives are really meant to imply smallness, but very frequently they are used merely as a means of expressing affection, politeness, or good humour, and in such they are difficult, if not

impossible to translate in English. E.g. the conductor in a train always asks to see your δυπότυκη = little tickets; this does not imply that the tickets are small, but merely that the conductor would not refuse a drink.

The commonest diminutive endings are:

## Masculine.

```
e. \sigma. мáльчикъ = bou
-икъ.
            мальчинка = little bou
-ишка.
            виучекъ
                        = arandson
-ekb.
            звѣрёкъ
                        = animal
-ërъ.
            дружокъ
                        = friend
-окъ.
            братецъ
                        = brother
-епъ
            котёнокъ
                        = kitten (cf. § 41, obs. 4)
-ёнокъ.
            Петровичь = son of Peter 1
-HUD.
                Feminine
                        = airl (till puberty)
            прводка.
-rca.
            Петровна
                        = daughter of Peter 1
-Ha.
            частина
-ца,
                        = part
                  Nouter
            όδπα υπο
                        = cloud
-1:0.
            письмено
                        = le/ter
-IIO.
-ne.
            око́ньпе
                        = unindown
```

As an example of the varieties of diminutives that can be formed from one word, take the word phase *virgin* (only used in such expressions as the 'Maid of Orleans', or crapan phase an old maid):

```
дівица = spinster.
```

дъвка = girl (sc. common girl, wench, a very derogatory term). дъвочка = girl (up to 12).

дъншка = girl (from 12 till marriage, or till about 30).

дъвчо́нка = little girl.

¹ Literally = Peter's little one; Петро́въ (masc.) and Петро́въ (fem.) are possessive adjectives formed from the word Пётръ = Peter, and to the stem Петров are added -пчъ for the son and -на for the daughter. All other patronymics are formed analogously. Patronymics are often contracted in rapid conversation, e. g. Ива́нычъ for Ива́новичъ, &с.; Марія Ива́новиа sounds like Марія́нна.

The following terminations imply good humour or affection specifically:

-ушка, -юшка, -ышко, -енька, -енка.

The following terminations are considered to imply depreciation:

-ншка, -ишко, -ёнка, -онка and sometimes -ушка.

The following are called augmentatives, as they usually imply largeness:

-ипа, -ище, -ища.

### THE DECLENSION OF THE PRONOUNS

§ 46. The inflexions of these are for the most part different from those of the substantives, though there are a few points of similarity, e.g. the dat. pl. always ends in -ME and the inst. pl. always in -ME.

### Personal Pronouns.

 $\mathfrak{A}=I$ , ты =thou, онь =he, она =she, оно =it, мы =we, вы =you, она, онь =they.

			Singular.	
N.	я	ты	онъ (neut. ond	oná
G.	меня́	тебя́	eró	eii
D.	мнѣ	тебѣ	ему́	eïi
A.	меня́	тебя	eró	еë
I.	пони	τοδόϊ	amr .	eii
L.	фим	тебѣ́	(п)ёмъ	(n)eñ

фим		тебѣ	<b>с</b> мё(п)	(n)eй
			Plural.	
N.	мы		вы они (masc	e. and neut.), ont (fem.)
G.	насъ		васъ	ихъ
D.	намъ		вамъ	нмь
A.	насъ		вась	ихъ
ı.	нами		вами	ими
L.	насъ		васъ	(н)ихъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

1. There is a reflexive personal pronoun, ceci, which has no nominative, and is declined alike in the sing. and pl.:

G. себя

D. себѣ

А. себя

І. собой

L. себѣ

i. e. just like тебя́.

The peculiarity of its use is that it can be applied to any of the three persons; e.g. a ποδπό ceốά = I lore myself, τη πόδαμης ceốά = thou lovest thyself; ομό οι ομά πόδαμης ceốά = he or she loves himor herself. It also occurs in a few very common idioms; e.g. τακό ceốά = fairly, averagely (lit. = thus to itself); camó ceóóю pasyméteth = that is understood (lit. = itself understands itself by itself); ομά χορομιά ceóóπ = she is a good-looking woman (lit. she [is] nice with herself); ομό живёть ceóπ ταμό... = he goes on living there (here the ceóπ implies that he goes on living in his own way, paying little attention to others, but not necessarily that he is a recluse; онь сломаль сеоπ τόπου = he has cracked his head, the Russian equivalent for he has broken his neck.

When joined to an ordinary transitive verb (making it reflexive) ceốń is contracted to -ch or -cb; e.g. pasyméetch = of course (lit. = it understands itself), éto he μέμαεται = that is not done; haxomých = I find myself. But the addition of the reflexive pronoun by no means always makes the word passive; Russian has many reflexive verbs which are middle in meaning, e.g. δοάτρα = to fear; δοώςh = I fear; hpábutch = it pleases, mhh hpábutch = it pleases me, I like. Cf. §§ 100, 110.

- 2. The nominatives ohe, ohe, ohe, ohe did not belong originally to ere, &c., and are not really personal pronouns at all, but demonstrative pronouns, corresponding somewhat to the German jener, jene, jenes, which in Russian, no longer used regularly as demonstrative pronouns, have been borrowed to supply the place of the lost nominatives of ere, &c.
- 3. It is important to notice that the acc. sing: of ohb and of oho is always ero, i.e. = the gen. sing., even though the thing to which it refers be inanimate. Similarly the acc. pl. of oho and of oho is always had.
  - 4. The initial u- in umb, uxb, and umu is always pronounced yi-.
- 5. The gen. sing. of one is usually pronounced  $y \cdot y \delta$ , i. e. like the acc. sing. ee, though it is always written ex.

- 6. The genitives of the personal pronoun eró, en, and man ordinarily mean his, her, and their, since Russian has no possessive pronoun of the third person, e.g. the only way of saying his father in Russian is eró отець (от отець eró).
- 7. The oblique cases of OHE, OHÉ, and OHÉ, when directly governed by a preposition, are always prefixed by the letter H; this is ostensibly done for the sake of euphony, but the real reason is that certain prepositions originally ended in H, and this letter was borrowed by other prepositions which did not end in it. Subsequently when the prepositions lost their final H, it stuck to the pronoun where it has remained. As the loc. case in Russian is never used without a preposition of some sort, the loc. of this pronoun is always prefixed by H, placed in brackets in the paradigm for this reason. When a preposition precedes ero, en, or uxe in their meaning of his, her, or their, and therefore does not directly govern the pronoun, the H is omitted.

Examples: СЪ НИМЪ = with him, ОТЪ НИХЪ = from them, О НЁМЪ = about him, but ОТЪ его ОТПА = from his father, О его брать = about his brother, &c.

- 8. For the inst. sing. mhon, тобой, en, and собой the full forms мною, тобою, éю, and собою are often used.
- 9. In correspondence all cases of the pronoun be are always spelt with an initial capital for politeness.
- 10. The particle же (or -жь) is often affixed to the personal pronouns, and expresses identity or gives emphasis to the pronoun; е. g. я твой брать, я же и твой другь = I am thy brother, I too am thy friend; кто вамь даль это? онь —а это? онь же = who gave you this? he [did]—and this? he [did] too. In book catalogues when the name of the author has once been printed, eró же printed in front of the titles of his various works means by the same author.

же can also mean but where a slight emphasis is laid on the pronoun; e.g. вы же сказа́ли это! = but it was you [who] said this!

11. The particle to affixed to the personal pronouns also expresses identity or gives emphasis.

# § 47. Possessive Pronouns.

The declension of these resembles that of OHB, MOH, MOH, MOH, MOH; MOH ; MOH = my, mine; TBOH, TBOH, TBOH; TBOH = thy, thine; CBOH, CBOH, CBOH;

свой  $= one^3s$  own; нашь, нашь, наше; наши = our, ours; вашь, ваше: ваши = your, yours.

		Singular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., Neut.
N.	мой	моя́	моё	мои
G.	моего	мое́й	Moeró	мойхъ
D.	моему́	мое́й	моему́	моимъ
A.	мой or мое	го мою	моё	мой or мойхъ
I.	моймъ	мое́й	моймъ	моими
L.	моёмъ	мое́й	моёмъ	ахиом
		Singular.		Plural.
N.	нашъ	наша	наше	наши
G.	námero	нашей	нашего	нашихъ
D.	нашему	на́шей	нашему	нашимъ
A.	= N. or G.	нашу	наше	= N. or G.
I.	нашимъ	нашей	нашимъ.	нашими
L.	нашемъ	нашей	нашемъ	на́шихъ

## OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Then and choir are declined exactly like mon, and haurb exactly like haurb.
- 2. Choň can only be used when it refers to the subject of the sentence, but it can be used of any of the three persons; e.g. π πιοδικό εβοετό οτιά can only mean I love my father (though it is also possible to say π πιοδικό μοετό οτιά), whereas π πιοδικό ετό οτιά = I love his father. Again, οην πιόδιτην εβοίο εθετρή = he loves his (i.e. some one sister, whereas οην πιόδιτην ετό εθετρή = he loves his (i.e. some one else's) sister.
- 3. The acc. sing. of the masc. and acc. pl. of all three genders of these pronouns follow the rule of the masculine substantives; i.e. when the object referred to is animate, the acc. = the gen., when inanimate it is the same as the nom.
- 4. For the inst. sing. мое́й, твое́й, свое́й, на́шей, and ва́шей, the full forms мое́ю, твое́ю, свое́ю, на́шею, and ва́шею are also used.
- 5. It is important to notice that the nom. pl. мой (also твой and свой) is a disyllable, pronounced ma-yi; the nom. sing. masc. мой (as also твой and свой), on the other hand, is a diphthong, the -й being the original nom. sing. of the personal pronoun of the 3rd person, which in that declension has been replaced by онь, &c.

- 6. In correspondence all cases of the pronoun same are spelt with an initial capital for politeness.
- 7. The particle me (or-md) affixed to the possessive pronouns expresses identity of ownership, e.g. чей этоть домь? мой—а чьё это поле? моё me = whose is this house? mine—and whose is this field? mine also.
  - 8. The particle to emphasizes the pronouns; e.g.;

    mon-to? = do you mean mine?

# § 48. Demonstrative Pronouns.

The declension of these is similar for the most part to that of the possessive pronouns, though differing from it in some important particulars.

тоть, та, то; тѣ = that (yonder). Singular. Plural. Masc. Fem. Neut. Masc., Fem., Neut. N. TOTE TO тħ та G. Toró той TOTÓ TEXT TEME D. Tomý той TOMÝ = N. or G. = N. or G.Α. TVTO TÉMU I. тъмъ TOÏ тЕмъ T<sub>1</sub>. TEXT томъ той TOME

этоть, эта, это; эти = this or that (here).

	Si	ngular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., Neut.
N.	· TOTЪ	э́та	э́то	э́ти
G.	э́того	э́той	этого	ахите
D.	э́тому	э́той	э́тому	этимъ
A.	= N. or G.	э́ту	э́то	= N. or G.
I.	э́тимъ	э́той	<b>етимъ</b>	э́тими
L.	э́томъ	э́той	этомъ	э́тихъ

ceй, ciá, cié (or cë); ciú=this (here).

		Singular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut. M:	asc., Fem., Neut.
N.	сей	ciá	cié	ciú
G.	ceró	сей	ceró	сихъ
D.	сему	сей	сему́	симъ
A.	= N. or	G. ciró	cié	= N. or G.
I.	симъ	сей	симъ	си́ми
L.	сёмъ	сей	сёмъ	сихъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. For the inst. sing. той, этой, and сей the full forms тою, этою, and сею are also used.
- 2. Of these three pronouns этоть is the oftenest, cen the most seldom used. Этоть is frequently used where we should say that in English, e.g. in very common phrases such as:

Что это тако́е? = what's that (lit. = what this such)?

Кто это такой? = who's that (lit. = who this such)?

Это было давно = that was long ago.

Это очень хорошо = that's very nice.

Это нашъ домъ = that is our house.

Óro can also mean these or those when it is the subject of a sentence and very frequently has this meaning, e.g.:

это мой дъти = these or those [are] my children.

The neuter pronoun to is often used as an enclitic affixed to a noun or another pronoun irrespective of gender or number to emphasize or to differentiate, and it sometimes seems to take the place of the definite article.

E. g. въ томъ-то и дъло от то-то и есть (both =) that's just the point; домъ-то мой = the house is mine.

(The first of these is not to be confused with the similar idiom given below.)

In the colloquial language, especially that of the peasants, this pronoun can be affixed to any noun (but only in the nom.) and made to agree with it, and thus acquire the value of a definite article.

- 3. Toth is used specially frequently in argument, e. g. то, что... = that which...; it is also used as a definite article before a relative clause, e.g. тоть мальчикь, которому я даль деньги = the boy to whom I gave the money. In conversation, however, even that (yonder) is frequently rendered by этоть with the addition of тамь = there, e.g. этоть домь тамь—нашь = that house over there is ours.
- 4. Тоть is especially common compounded with prepositions, e.g. потомь = then (lit. = upon that), затымь = then (lit. = behind that), потому = therefore (lit. = according to that), кромы того =

besides (lit. = outside that), 3a To=on the other hand (lit. = for that).

- 5. Torn followed by erorn is often used for the former and the latter.
- It is important to notice the very common idiom το μ μέπο (lit. = and that's the thing), which means incessantly.
- 7. Ceй is seldom used except in a few phrases in which it is extremely common, e.g. ceйчась = immediately (lit. = this instant, though the noun чась has changed its meaning and in modern Russian = hour); сію минуту = this minute, this instant; сего́дня = to-day (lit. = of this day); до сихь порь = till now (lit. = till these times); и то и сё = both the one and the other; при сёмь = 'enclosed' (lit. = in the presence of this).
- 8. The pronouns такой, э́такой, and таковой = such are declined like adjectives, q.v.
- 9. The pronoun о́ный = that (yonder), which supplied the forms of the personal pronoun онь, &c., is now obsolete and only common in the phrase во вре́мя о́но = in days of yore (lit. = into that time).
- 10. Tots followed by the enclitic же = the same and is very common, e.g. вь томь же домь = in the same house, того же автора (gen.) = by the same author, сь тымь же мальчикомь = with the same boy; the words одынь и = one and are often added, e.g. вь одномь и томь же городь = in one and the same town, вь одно и то же время = at one and the same time. The phrase тоже, always written as one word, = also, e.g. мы тоже = we also. Этоть же = this same and такой же = of the same kind, are also very common.

# § 49. Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.

KTO = who (masc. and fem.); TTO = what.

N.	RTO	OTP
G.	roró	чего́
D.	ĸomý	чему́
A.	koró	TO
I.	къмъ	чвит
T.	ROME	TÖMT

чей, чья, чьё; чьи = whose.

Russian has a special pronoun for whose which is declined throughout.

		Singular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., Neut.
N	Г. чей	RAP	ÖAF	ильи
G	ł. чьего́	чьей	чьего	ТХИЛР
I	). чьему́	чьей	чьему́	амиар
A	. = N. or	С. чью	ўа <b>Р</b>	= N. or G.
I	тышыт.	цечь	чыныь	пийар
I	л. чьёмъ	чьей	чьёмъ	ахиар

кото́рый = which, како́й and каково́й = of what sort, are declined like adjectives, q. v.; кото́рый supplies the plural of кто, что.

### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The pronoun чей is of course most frequently used in the nominative, e.g. чей этоть домь? whose house is this? But the other cases are not uncommon, e.g. чью жену́ онь любить? whose wife does he love?
- 2. Yro is used to introduce a subordinate clause in all those cases where in English we use the demonstrative pronoun that, i. e. after all verbs of asserting, denying, believing, thinking, perceiving, feeling, &c., e. g. я говорю, что онъ дуракъ = I say that he [is] a fool. It is also used in the expressions for why and because, e.g. otheró?=why? (= from what), ottoró ato = because (lit. = from that what), почему ? = why ? (lit. = according to what), потому 4TO = because (lit. = according to that what). It is important to notice the difference in meaning of these two expressions: orgeró = from what cause, e. g. отчего сегодня такъ темно? = why is it so dark to-day? отчего вы такъ бътдны? = why are you so pale? but почему = on what ground, e.g. почему вы говорите это? = why do you say this? почему онъ желаеть видёть меня? = why does he wish to see me? Of course there are many questions in which either of the two words could be used indifferently, and the answer to both is usually introduced by потому что, which is far commoner than оттого что. There is yet another expression for why, viz. зачемь? which means literally behind what? and thus comes to mean truing to get what? or with what object? e.g. зачьмь вы приний? = why

(sc. with what object) have you come? The answer to such a question is introduced by затыть, чтобы (or more often merely by чтобы) = in order that (lit. behind that what), which is followed by the past tense or the infinitive; the particle -бы аffixed to что (and sometimes written чтобь) is really part of the verb быть = to be, q. v. Чтобы means in order that, and is also used to introduce wishes, when it is always followed by the past tense, e.g. чтобы это было такь! = that it were so! Both что as a conjunction and чтобы are enclitics and have no accent.

3. Kto is often used by itself to express whoever, e. g. kto ymbeth по-норвежски, тоть и понимаеть по-датски = whoever knows Norwegian can also understand (lit. that one also understands) Danish. кто говорить это, врёть = whoever says this, lies. Another very common way of expressing whoever and whatever is to add бы ни to KTO and TTO, which are then always followed by the past tense: it is important to notice that the particle Hu does not imply negation; e.g. кто бы мив ни говориль это, я ему не повърю = whoever should tell me this, I shall not believe him; что бы вы ни делали, я не буду вась слушать = whatever you do, I shall not listen to you; and the following very common idioms may be mentioned: кто бы то ни было = whoever it be. что бы то ни было = whatever it be, and во что бы то ни стало = cost what it may (lit. = into whatever it should become). This use of 6m must be carefully distinguished from that mentioned in the preceding paragraph. Whoever not can only be translated by кто не...е. g. кто не видаль Москвы, не знаеть Россін = whoever has not seen Moscow, does not know Russia. Other common ways of expressing whoever and whatever are paraphrases such as every one who, all that, &c.

4. Кто..., кто... is very commonly used to express some... others..., е. g. всв убхали, кто на лошадахъ, кто по желбэной доро́гв = they have all left, some by carriage (lit. = on horses), some by railway.

5. The particle же or -жь is very frequently affixed to кто, что, чей, and какой, and gives these pronouns the meaning who then? &с.; е. g. кого же вы видъли? = whom then was it you saw, whom then did you see? что же случилось? = what then has happened? Чтожь by itself, as an exclamation, is very commonly used in answer to a question or request, and means approximately certainly, or why not? Another very common idiom is ну, такь что-жы? =

well, what about it? Yet another что-жъ двлать? = what's to be done, que voulez vous?

OTHERO ME? and HOHEMY ME? are also very common in argument, meaning but why then? OTHERO ME! is also used as an exclamation, meaning both far from it, not at all, and certainly, by all means.

6. Что and что-жть is also very frequently used to introduce a question, and is in fact almost the most usual way of introducing an interrogative sentence; in this use it never has any emphasis on it; e.g. что вы повдете въ этомъ году заграницу? = shall you go abroad this year?

### § 50.

## Definitive Pronouns.

# самъ, сама́, само́; сами = self.

		Singular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., Neut.
N.	самъ	сама	само́	сами
G.	самого	самой	самого	самихъ
D.	самому	самой	самому	самимъ
A.	= N. or G.	самоё	само	= N. or G.
I.	самимъ	• самой	самимъ	самими
L.	самомъ	самой	самомъ	самихъ

# весь, вся, всё; всb = all, the whole.

	S	Plural.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., Neut.
N.	весь	вся	всё	всѣ
G.	Bceró	всей	Bceró	всёхъ
D.	всему	всей	всему	всемъ
A.	= N.  or  G.	BCIO	всё	= N. or G.
I.	всѣмъ	всей	всѣмъ	всѣми
L.	всёмъ	всей	всёмъ	всѣхъ

### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Всикій and каждый = every, each, иной = some, and другой = other, are declined like adjectives, q. v. For одинь = only, alone (lit. = one) of. Numerals, § 60.
- 2. One another is expressed in Russian by the phrase другь друга, which is the nom. and acc. sing. of the word другь, which originally meant second or other, but in modern Russian has acquired the meaning of friend; e.g. они очень мобять другь друга = they love

one another very much, мы пошли другь съ другомъ = we went one with the other.

- 3. Самъ can be used either before or after the noun it qualifies, e.g. я самъ = I myself (masc.), я сама́ = I myself (fem.), самъ царъ = the tsar himself, я ви́дъть самого́ цара́ = I saw the tsar himself, онь мнѣ самому́ сказа́ть это = he told this to me myself (sc. not through anybody else), мы самы = we ourselves, онь самъ от самь онь = he himself, само́ собо́ю = hy от of itself, я самъ себѣ куни́ть это = I bought this for myself myself, она́ сама́ себѣ куни́та это = she bought this for herself herself.
- 4. It is not difficult to distinguish the use of came from that of the reflexive pronoun cedá, but came is very easily confused with the longer form of the same word cáment=the very, which is declined like an adjective, e. g. toth we cáment readekt = the very same man, but came readekt = the man himself; be cáment réport = in the very centre of the town, but be camént réport = in the town itself. Cáment is also used in the formation of the superlative degree in the comparison of adjectives, q. v.
- 5. The use of Becs does not present any difficulties, e.g. Becs. róродъ = the whole town, весь день (acc.) = all day long, всю ночь (acc.) = all night long, она вся въ чёрномъ = she [is] all in black. It is very important to notice a few very common idioms in which the word occurs: concemb = quite (lit. = with all), Beë pabhó = it's all the same (lit. = all even), всего́ хоро́шаго, всего́ лу́чшаго! = (I wish you) everything good, everything of the best! (gen. after verb of wishing), boerô = altogether, in all, e. g. boerô пять мъсть багажа = five pieces of luggage in all (lit. = of all), Beë = continually (this is really an adverbial use of the neuter), e.g. она всё плакала = she kept on crying all the time, онь всё кричіть = he keeps on shouting. he is always shouting, я всё шишу́=I am always writing, онъ всё ходить въ театръ = he is always going to the theatre. It is very important to be sure of pronouncing Bees with a soft cand closed e, as there is another word Blos having the open e-sound and hard ending, meaning weight.

# § 51. Indefinite Pronouns.

никто = no one, ничто = nothing.

These are declined exactly like are and are, but it is to be observed that the nom. and acc. Hauré is very rarely used, the gen.

being almost always substituted for them, e.g. что съ вами? ничего! = what is the matter with you? nothing! это ничего! = no matter! (lit. = this [is] nothing). When a verb follows either of these pronouns, it must always be negative, since in Russian two negatives do not make an affirmative, but are on the other hand necessary to complete the negation, e.g. никто не пришёть = no one has come, я никому́ не сказать = I have told no one, онь мнъ ничего́ не́ дать = he has given me nothing.

The following very common idioms may be noticed: никого́ не видать = there is no one to be seen, ничего́ не видать = there is nothing to be seen, никого́ от ничего́ не слыхать = there is no one or

nothing to be heard.

There is a very idiomatic adverbial use of the word huveró in which it means tolerably, fairly well, e.g. какъ вы себя чу́вствуете? ничего́!= how do you feel [yourself]? fairly well! This can also be used with a verb, e.g. онь играеть ничего́ = he plays fairly well, but of course with the double negative the meaning would be negative, e.g. онь ничего́ не играеть = he is not playing anything.

When никто and ничто are used with a preposition, the latter is inserted between the ни- and the pronoun, e.g. ни съ къмъ = with no one, ни о чёмъ = about nothing, ни за что = not for anything, ни съ чѣмъ = without accomplishing one's object (lit. = with nothing); ни въ чёмъ не бывало is an idiom meaning not in the least, and какъ булго ни въ чёмъ не бывало = quite unruffled, as if nothing had happened.

никакой = of no kind

is declined like an adjective, q.v.

не́кого = there is no one to . . . не́чего = there is nothing to . . .

Hé- can be prefixed to any case of кто and что except the nom, and the words thus formed are written as one word, except when used with a preposition, which, just as in the case of никто, is inserted between the не- and the pronoun. It is always followed by the inf. It is important to remember that the accent is always on the не-, while in никто it is always on the last syllable; e. g. нечего делать от делать нечего! = there is nothing to be done! (lit. = to do; a very common idiom), говорить нечего! = there is nothing more to be said, there's no denying it, некому сказать = there is no one

to tell, не съ къмъ говорить = there is no one to talk to (lit. = with), не о чёмъ писать = there is nothing to write about, and the common idioms: не за что = il n'y pas de quoi (our don't mention it), не за чъмъ = there is no object, there is no point.

нъкто = some one, нъчто = something.

It is important not to confuse these two words with heror and here. The beginner is all the more likely to confuse them because his pronounced exactly like e and in both the accent is on the same syllable. But as a matter of fact the two words are of very rare occurrence except in the nom., much the commoner expressions for some one and something being those mentioned lower; e.g. h chimlats harto o home I have heard something about him, one make hart creatant = he told me something.

нъкоторый = a certain, some, is declined like an adjective, q. v.

кто-то = some one, что-то = something, кто-нибудь = some one or other, any one, что-нибудь = something or other, anything (lit. = who not be, who be it not), кто-либо = any one, что-либо = anything.

These are all declined exactly like kTo and TTO. The difference in meaning between кто-то and кто-нибудь is slight but very important. Kró-to is the more definite of the two and can never mean any one: któ-hhovnb is less definite and means some one or any one. The difference is best illustrated by examples: któ-to инёть = some one is coming, кто-то пришёть = some one has come, кто-то сказать мнь = some one told me, кто-то тамь = [there is] some one there, кто-то позвонить = some one has rung, я дать кому-то книгу, но не номню кому = I gave the book to some one, but I don't remember to whom, она сказала мнв что-то о нёмъ = she told me something about him (sc. but I don't want to tell you what), A BÉRY UTÓ-TO TAMB = I see something there, онь написаль что-то на бумажкв = he wrote something on the piece of paper, pyons of yemb-to = a rouble with something (i.e. over a rouble, I forget how much), говя́дина съ чвиъ-то = beef with something (i.e. something with it, I forget what), but нома-ли кто-нибуль? or кто-нибудь дома? = is any one at home? спросите кого-нибудь! = ask some one! я спрошу у кого-нибудь совыта = I shall ask advice from some one, я куплю вамъ что-нибудь = I shall buy you something or other (sc. I don't know myself exactly what), я кунлю вамъ что-то = I shall buy you something (sc. I know what, but I am not going to tell you), надо сдёлать что-нибудь = something must be done (sc. 1 don't know what), надёньте что-нибудь теплёе = put something warm on (sc. it doesn't matter what), ску́шайте что-нибудь ещё = eat something more, скажи́те мні что-нибудь о себі = tell me something about yourself, сыграйте намь что-нибудь! = do play us something!

Кто-либо and что-либо are still more indefinite, e. g. спросите коголибо, а онь скажеть вамь... = ask any one you like, and he will tell you..., дайте кому-либо = give [it] to any one you like.

Кой-кто = a few, ко́е-что = a little. These are also declined exactly like кто and что; they imply indefiniteness of number or quantity, е. g. я спращивать кой-кого = I have been asking one or two people, онь сказать мнь ко́е-что о сео́ = he told me a few things about himself, я узнать ко́е-что о . . . = I have found out a thing or two about . . , я ко́й сь къмъ говорить объ этомъ = I have been talking to one or two people about this.

Кой-какой = a few and любой = any you like are declined like adjectives, q.v.

### DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVES

§ 52. The adjective in Russian has two forms, the shorter and the longer; the shorter is called the predicative, the longer the attributive.

The predicative form of the adjective is used almost solely when the adjective is the predicate of a sentence; in form it is exactly like a noun, and except in popular poetry it occurs only in the nominative, e.g. g may koromin = the house [is] nice (cf. German: das Haus ist schön), mod cectrá 60mbhá = my sister [is] ill, mópe глубоко́ = the sea [is] deep, они живы = they [are] alive, я очень радь = I[am] very glad, онь счастинеь = he [is] happy, она здорова = she [is] well, я виновать = I[am] to blame, я виновата = I[am] to blame (if a woman is speaking). But whenever an adjective qualifies a noun, the longer or attributive form must be used; this is an amalgamation of the shorter form with the pronominal endings. There is a hard and a soft declension, corresponding to the hard and soft nouns.

§ 53.

### Hard Declension.

Example: былый, былая, былое = white.

		Singular.		
	Masc.	Fem.		Neut.
N.	бѣ́лый	бълая		бъ́лое
G.	бѣлаго	бѣлой		бѣлаго
D.	бѣлому	бѣлой		бѣ́лом <b>у</b>
A.	$=$ N. or $G_{\bullet}$	бѣлую		бѣлое
I.	бълымъ	бѣ́лой		<b>б</b> ұлым <b>т</b>
L.	бѣломъ	бѣлой		бѣломъ
		Plural.		
	Masc.	Fem.		Neut.
N.	бѣ́лые		пыкад	
G.		ахыха		
D.		бұлымр		
A.		= N. or G.		
I.		бѣ́лыми		
L.		бѣ́лыхъ		

### Hard Declension when the ending is accented.

Example: молодо́й, молода́я, молодо́е = young.

	Singular.	
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
<b>N.</b> молодо́й	молодая	молодо́е
G. молодо́го	молодо́й	молодо́го

after which it is declined exactly like обмый, except that the accent is always on the ending, and on the first syllable of the ending when it is disyllabic.

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The rule with regard to the acc. sing. masc. and acc. pl. of the adjective is the same as that which governs the acc. sing. and pl. of masc. and the acc. pl. of fem. nouns, i. e. for an animate object it is always the same as the genitive and for an inanimate object the same as the nominative.
- 2. There is an alternative longer form of three syllables for every fem. inst. sing., e. g. 6 how or 6 how.

3. The nominative singular and plural of the attributive form of the adjective arose through the affixing of the lost pronominal nominatives (which are given in scientific works as jb ja je, pronounced i ya ye, whose place in the pronominal declension has been taken by ohe ohá ohó) to nominatives of the predicative form, thus obline = obline + n (jb), oblina = obline + n (ja), oblina = oblina + n (ja), oblina

The other cases were formed analogously, though the process is clearer in some than in others, e.g. 6Éлаго = 6Éла + его, 6Éлую = 6Éлу + ю (= ju yu, an old acc. of the pronominal declension), 6Éлому = 6Éлу + ему; in the other cases more drastic contraction has occurred.

- 4. Several very common adjectives (including names) are accented on the ending and declined like молодой, е. g. передовой = foremost, золотой = golden, больной = ill, сёдой = gray-hairèd, больной = big, Толстой = Tolstoi (while the adjective толстый = thick, fat, is declined like белый). It may be mentioned that almost all Russian surnames are adjectives and must be declined adjectivally, е. g. сочинены Толсто́го = the works of Tolstoi, я знать Толсто́го = I knew Tolstoi, я знаю графиню Толсту́ю = I know Countess Tolstoi, Толсты́е = the Tolstois, у Толсты́хь = at the house of the Tolstois. Also the ordinals: второй = second, шесто́й = sixth, седьмой = seventh, восьмой = eighth, and сороково́й = fortieth.
- 5. Many adjectives ending in both -ый and -ой are used substantivally, e.g. столо́вая (sc. ко́мната) = dining-room, гости́ная = drawing-room, кладовая = store-room, насѣко́мое = insect, живо́тное = animal, портной = tailor, городово́й = policeman, рядово́й = private, ломово́й = carter, больно́й = the patient, the invalid (fem. больна́я), чужо́й = stranger, мясно́е = the meat-course, joint, борза́я = a wolf-hound (lit. = swift), золото́й = a gold coin (ten roubles), and very commonly the names of streets, e.g. Не́вскій (sc. проспе́кть) = the Nevsky (in Petrograd), Морска́я (sc. ўлица) = the Morskáya (street in Petrograd).

6. The ы of the case-endings of those adjectives whose stems both end in к. г. and х. and are accented, becomes и. е. с. крыпкій = strong, крупкимъ, крупкіе, &c. (with fem, крупкая and neut, крупкое), маленькій = little, великій = great, широкій = broad, ликій = wild. стро́гій = severe. ти́хій = quiet. ўзкій = narrow, коро́ткій = short, спанкій = sweet, and many others; this category includes all adjectives derived from names of towns and countries, e. o. московскій = of Moscow. Muscovite. петрогранскій = of Petrograd. кіевскій = of Kiev. рижскій = of Riga, русскій = Russian, німенкій = German, французскій = French, англійскій = English, and innumerable surnames which are often derived from names of places. е. о. Оболенскій = Obolenski, Чайковскій = Chaikovski, Постоевскій = Dostoyevski, &c. It must not be forgotten that all such surnames are declined throughout, e.g. the wife and unmarried daughter or sister of a man called Оболе́нскій із Оболе́нская, his whole family Оболенскіе. &c., and that for a foreigner to sav. e.g. Madame Obolensky, is just as correct as it would be to talk about the Emperor Catherine.

But when an adjective whose stem ends in к, г, or x is accented on the ending then it is declined like молодо́й, and the ы only changes to и in the masc. and neut. inst. sing. and throughout the plural, e.g. городско́й = belonging to the town (nom. pl. городско́е), дорого́й = dear (inst. sing. пороги́мь, nom. pl. дорого́е, &c.), as also those surnames of this category which are accented on the ending, e.g. Трубецко́й = Trubetskoi (nom. pl. Трубецко́е = the Trubetskois), Шаховско́й = Shakhovskoi (fem. Шаховска́я), &c.

In this category are included those adjectives whose stems end in ж and in, and are accented on the ending, e.g. the very common words чужой = strange (sc. not known), чужое = strangers, у чужохъ = amongst strangers, въ чужомъ домъ = in another person's house, and большой = big, большой домъ = a large house, большой любитель искусства = a great lover of art, большое often = the grown-ups.

7. The pronouns which are declined like adjectives all belong to the hard declension: каждый = every, each, который = which, нёкоторый = a vertain, some are declined exactly like бёлый, вса́кій = of every kind, every, each, like кры́ній, алд тако́й, этако́й, такобій = of such a kind, тако́й-же = of the same kind, какой алд каково́й = of what kind, друго́й = other, никако́й = of no kind, ино́й = some, ко́й-какой = a few, and любо́й = any you like, like дорогой and молодо́й.

These words are so very common that a few examples of their use are added: каждый день (acc.) = every day, на каждомъ шагу = at every step, каждую минуту (acc.) = every minute, каждый знаеть = every one knows. который номерь? = which number? который чась? = what time is it? (lit. = which hour?), въ которомъ часу? = at what o'clock? которое число сегодня? = what date is it to-day? некоторые нахо́дять, что... = some consider (lit. = find) that..., нѣкій (от нѣкто) Ива́новъ = a certain [man called] Ivanov, до нъкоторой сте́пени = to a certain extent, въ некоторомъ роде = in a certain way, in some ways, всякій вздорь = all sorts of rubbish, всякая книга = each book, веякія кніши = all sorts of books, веякая веячина = odds and ends, онъ такой милый! = he is such a nice man! (N.B. Russians never say такъ милый for so nice), она такая милая! = she is such a nice woman! они такіе милые! = they are such nice people! вы такую погоду = in (lit. into) such weather, въ такое время = at such a time, такимъ образомъ = in this way (lit. by such manner), which often comes to mean by doing this, no takon crénent = to such an extent, такото рода = of such a sort (e.g. такото рода пьеса = a play of this sort; the nom. often follows the gen., but can also precede it), въ такомъ случав = in such a case, which comes to mean since this is so, въ такомъ родъ = in that manner, of that sort, такото-же рода, въ такомъ-же родь = of the same kind, in the same manner, какой онъ интересный! = how interesting he is! какая интересная книга! = what an interesting book! какой красивый мальчикь! = what a beautiful boy! какая коро́шая пого́да! = what nice weather! какая плохая (скверная) погода! = what bad (nasty) weather! какимъ образомъ? = in what manner? какин новости сего́дня? = what news is there to-day? како́го ро́да? = of what sort? (e.g. это какого рода пьеса? = what sort of a play is this?), въ какомъ родъ = what like? какой вздоръ! = what rubbish! книга, каковую вы написали = a book of the sort which you have written. другой разъ = another time, другого рода = of another sort, на другой день = the next day, другимъ образомъ = in another way, другие говорять = others say, никакимь образомь = in no way, ни вы какомъ случав = in no case, in no eventuality, which comes to mean whatever happens, ни за какіе ковріжки = not for anything in the world (lit. not for any sort of little cakes), въ которомъ городъ вы живете? ни въ какомъ = in which town do you live? not in any, кой-какія новости = some items of news, иной разъ = sometimes (Germ. manchmal), иные говорать = some say (originally иной meant one, e.g. инороть = unicorn, but it also acquired the meaning other, e.g. инородцы = people of other race than one's own), кой-какій книги = a few books of sorts, въ любой чась = at any hour (lit. into), въ любойь городь = in any town you like to mention, въ любой день any day you like (lit. into).

There is a very idiomatic use of kakobóň as an interjection, usually expressing admiration at somebody's exploit, and it is always used in the predicative form and precedes the noun, e.g. kakóbó pýckiň бале́ть! = well, what do you think of the Russian ballet. isn't it fine! какоbá пкрица! = isn't she a splendid singer! каково урожай = what a fine harvest!

8. It is not absolutely true that all adjectives have both predicative and attributive forms. The two words радъ (fem. ра́да) = glad and гора́здъ = capable have only the predicative form. To render their meaning when used attributively synonyms such as ра́достный = joyful. способный = capable must be used.

Conversely большой = big has no predicative form, and if used predicatively the synonym великій takes its place, e.g. Россія велика́ = Russia is large; further, all words in -скій, e.g. ру́сскій = Russian, in -ской, e.g. городской = of the town, and adjectives denoting materials, e.g. золотой = golden, ка́менный = of stone or brick, have only the attributive form, e.g. he is Russian = онъ ру́сскій, my ring is of gold = моё кольцо́ золото́е, this bridge is of stone = э́тоть мость ка́менный. Otherwise every adjective has both forms and the shorter must be used whenever the adjective is the predicate. To form a shorter from a longer adjective it is only necessary to cut off the endings -ый, -я, and -е, then for the masc. to substitute -ь and for the fem. and neut. nothing; for the pl. cut off -е, -я; e.g. ми́лый, ми́лая, ми́лое = nice, dear, short form = миль, мила́, мило́, pl. мель́.

Examples of use: мяла́я дѣвочка = a nice little girl, дѣвочка мяла́ = the little girl [is] nice, while it is also possible to say дѣвочка милая = the little girl is a nice (sc. little girl), дѣвочка така́я ми́лая = the little girl is such a nice (sc. little girl); онъ ми́лый = he is a nice [man], онъ такой ми́лый = he is such a nice [man], онъ такой миль = he is so nice. The only difficulty that occurs in forming the short form is that in some cases in the nom. masc. sing. where, after cutting off the -ый, a group of consonants

difficult to pronounce would be left, a vowel is inserted; this is usually e, which when accented becomes  $\ddot{e}$ , e.g. больной = ill— болень, умный = clever—умёнь, сильный = strong—силень ог силёнь, видный = visible—видень, сискойный = calm—спокоень; in the case of достойный = vorthy, it is и—достойны; before-кь it is о, короткій = short—коротокь; крыкій = strong—крынокь; лёгкій = light—лёгокь (except after ж and ш, when it is e, e.g. тяжкій = heavy,—тажекь). О also occurs in a few other words: злой = bad-tempered, wicked—золь; полный = full—полонь.

In many cases, however, groups of consonants, which might seem difficult to the foreigner, but are as nothing to Russians, are left without any vowel being inserted, e.g. möptben dead—möptben; Töpctben dead—möptben; Töpctben dead—möptben; Töpctben dead—möptben; Töpctben dead—möptben dead—möpt

9. It has been pointed out that in the language as it is spoken and written the predicative form of the adjective only occurs in the nominative; in the folk-poetry, however, which is epic in character, the other cases are often used, usually as fixed epithets for certain things, and recur with great frequency.

10. The first halves of compound adjectives which are hard end in -o, e.g. бѣлока́менный = of white stone, свѣлло-зелёный = light green, тёмно-сѣрый = dark gray, во́лжско-ка́мскій банкъ = the bank of the Volga and the Kama, ру́сско-нѣме́цкій слова́рь = a Russian-German dictionary.

Corresponding to the soft declension of nouns, there is also one of adjectives, though the number included in it is very much smaller than that belonging to the hard declension:

## § 54. Soft Declersion.

Example: cúnin, cúnsa, cúnee = dark blue.

		Singi lar.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	си́ній	си́няя	си́нее
G.	си́няго	си́ней	синяго
D.	си́нему	си́ней	синему
A.	=N. or G.	ейнюю	си́нее
I.	си́нимъ	си́ней	синимъ
L.	си́немъ	си́ней	си́:емь

		Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	си́ніе	си́нія	
G.		ейнихъ	
D.		синимъ	
A.		= N.  or  G.	
I.		синими	
L.		синихъ .	

It will be observed that all the soft vowels in the endings of the soft declension correspond to the hard vowels in those of the hard declension, i.e. (n) i to m, n to a, w to y, e to o.

### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The rule with regard to the acc. sing. masc. and acc. pl. masc. and fem. is the same as for the hard adjectives.
- 2. There is an alternative longer form of three syllables for every inst. sing. fem., e.g. cíhem and cúhem.
- 3. The predicative form of the soft adjectives is practically never used.
  - 4. There are no soft adjectives having the accent on the ending.
- 5. There are a few soft adjectives which are used substantivally, e. g. ло́вчій = huntsman, стра́пчій = attorney, го́нчая (sc. соба́ка) = sporting-dog (cf. obs. 7), ле́шій = wood-demon, пере́дняя (sc. ко́мната) = ante-room.
- 6. The commonest adjectives declined like си́ній are only a few in number, and are therefore given here: дре́вній = ancient, и́скренній = sincere, вну́тренній = interior, внѣшній = exterior, крайній = extreme, здѣшній = belonging to this place, from here, та́мошній = belonging to that place, from there, вчерашній = of yesterday, сего́дняшній = of to-day, за́втрашній = of to-morrow, весе́нній (от ве́шній) = vernal, лѣтній = summer, осе́нній = autumnal, за́мній = winter, послѣдній = last, сре́дній = middle, тепе́решній = of to-day (lit. of now), тогда́шній = former (lit. of then), пре́жній = former, за́дній = hinder, пере́дній = front, у́тренній = morning, вече́рній = evening, ве́рхній = upper, на́жній = lower (На́жній Но́вгородъ = Lower Newtown), ра́нній = early, по́здній = late.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Except the very common forms: хоро́шъ, хороша́, хорошо́, pl. хороши́, гора́чъ, -ча́, -ча́, -ча́, -ва́, -жа́, -жа́, -жа́, -ки́, похо́жъ, похо́жъ, похо́жъ, похо́жъ, сf. p. 79.

7. Those soft adjectives which end in -min, -min, -win, and min are declined somewhat differently from cunin, and as some of them are extremely common one is given in full:

хоро́тій, хоро́тая, хоро́тее = nice, good, jolly.

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	хоро́шій	хоро́шая	хоро́шее
G.	xopómaro	хоро́шей	хорошаго
D.	хоро́шему	хоро́шей	<b>х</b> оро́шем <b>у</b>
A.	= N. or G.	хоро́шую	хоро́шее
I.	хорошимъ	хоро́шей	хоро́шимъ
L.	хоро́шемъ	хоро́шей	хоро́шемъ
		Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	хоро́шіе	xopómis	I
G.		хоро́шихъ	
D.		хоро́шимъ	
A.		= N. or G.	
I.		хорошими	
L.		хоро́шихъ	

This is apparently a mixture of the hard and soft adjectives, but it is really soft, only the m, ж, ч, and m turn subsequent я, ы, о, ю into a, и (i), е, у. The following very common words are thus declined: горя́чій = hot (lit. = burning, e. g. in the phrase горя́чей воды́ (gen.) = some hot water), свіжній = fresh, похожій = like, меньшій = lesser, smaller, бо́льшій = greater, bigger, лу́чшій = better, all superlatives in -шій and all participles in -чій and -щій.

8. The first halves of compound adjectives which are soft end in -e, e. g. сре́дне-азіа́тскій = Central Asian, дре́вне-гре́ческій = ancient Greek.

N.B. The adjective derived from Нижній Но́вгородъ (cf. obs. 6) is нижегоро́дскій, е. g. нижегоро́дская губе́рнія = the Government (i. e. Province) of N. N.

9. Special attention must be called to the plurals: MHórie = many, and

немно́гіе = few, which are declined like хоро́шіе; the respective singulars are adverbs, мно́го = much and немно́го = little; нъ́сколько = some is similarly used except in the nom. plur. for which нъ́которые is invariably substituted (cf. p. 75), c. g.

мно́гіе нахо́дять, что . . . = many people consider (lit. find) that . . . (it would be impossible to use the adverb here), то́лько у (о́чень) немно́гихь сво́й экипа́жи = only a (very) few have their own carriages, въ нѣсколькихь случаяхь = in several cases. The singular of мно́гіе is also used, e.g. во мно́гомъ э́та кни́га мнѣ нра́вится = there is much in this book that pleases me (lit. this book in much).

### § 55. Declension of Possessive Adjectives.

There is a large number of these in Russian, and as the declension is different from that of the ordinary adjective, an example is given in full:

Ива́новъ = belonging to Ivan (= John).

	Singular.	
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N. Ива́новъ	Ива́нова	Ива́ново
G. Ива́нова	Ивановой	Иванова
D. Ива́нову	Ива́новой	Ива́нову
A. $=$ N. or G.	Ива́нову	Ива́ново
I. Ивановымъ	Ива́новой	Ива́новымъ
L. Ива́новомъ	Ивановой	Ивановомъ
	Plural.	
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	Ивановы	
G.	Ива́новыхъ	
D.	Ивановымъ	
A.	= N. or G.	
I.	Ивановыми	
L.	Ива́новыхъ	
and the control of th		

Ива́новъ may mean either belonging to Ivan, e. g. Ива́новъ домъ, or it may be the surname Ivanov, which in this case is an ellipse standing for Ива́новъ сынъ = Ivan's son, or Johnson; Ива́нова may mean belonging to Ivan (fem.), e. g. Ива́нова сестра́ = Ivan's sister, or by itself, prefixed by Госножа́ (Mrs. or Miss) it means Miss or Mrs. Ivanov—Госножа Ива́нова = Mrs. Johnson; Ива́ново may mean belonging to Ivan (neut.) or it may be the name of a village, when the word село́ is understood, originally called after Ivan; Ива́новы may mean anything belonging to Ivan in the plural, or it may mean by itself the Ivanovs. Surnames and names of places formed in this way are endless, e. g. Па́вловъ = Faul s, '(Mr.) Paul-

son', Павлова = '(Mrs. or Miss) Paulson', Петровъ = Peter's, Peterson, Поповъ = priest's (from попъ = a priest, a very common surname), and include many fantastic names of sometimes curious origin, e.g. Абрикосовъ (apricot's), Философовъ (philosopher's), Грибовновь (mushroom-eater's). It is from these words that the wellknown Russian patronymics are formed by adding to them - ичъ (which is a diminutive with the special meaning son of) for the masculine and -Ha for the feminine, and it must be remembered that it is by their Christian names together with their patronymics that all Russians address one another, unless they are strangers or very intimate friends or relations. For example, if a man's surname is Поповъ, his father's name Пётръ (Peter), and his own Christian name Ца́вель (Paul), his friends will all call him Ца́вель Петровичь; let us say that his wife's name is Анна (Anne) and her father's Christian name Ивань, her full name will be Анна Ивановна Попова, and all her friends will call her Анна Ивановна. There is a number of possessive adjectives from soft stems corresponding to the hard represented by Ива́новъ, e.g. Андрей = Andrew, makes Андреевъ: Василій = Basil—Васильевъ: Сергви = Sergius—Сергвевъ. In this category are included names of not purely Russian origin such as Турге́невъ = Turgénev.

Besides there is a large number of names and words which form their possessive adjectives in -инъ, -ынъ, instead of in -овъ (the caseendings are exactly the same), e. g. Oomá (Thomas) makes Oomínto. fem. Оомина with patronymic Оомичь (Thomas's son); Илья (Elias) -Ильинъ (patronymics Ильичъ, fem. Ильинична); Никита (Victor) -Никитинъ (the name of a well-known poet); царица (tsaritsa. empress)—Царицынъ (a large town on the Volga, sc. городъ). Царіщыно (sc. село́, a place near Moscow), while царь makes ца́ревъ. This category includes such words as мужнинъ = husband's (from мужъ = husband), женинъ = wife's (жена), братнинъ = brother's (брать), and сестринь = sister's (сестра), and those derived from diminutives, e.g. Серёжинъ from Серёжа = Сергый = Sergius. Са́шинъ from Са́ша = Александръ or Александра = Alexander and Господь = the Lord makes Господень, Господия, Alexandra. Госполне.

All these possessive adjectives have only the predicative form.

Finally there is a large category of possessive adjectives formed especially from names of animals, but including some others;

these have only the attributive form. As the declension is rather different from the others, an example is given:

рыбій = fish's (from pыба = fish).

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ры́бій	ры́бья	ры́бье
G.	откадій	йөлдій	откадійс
D.	ры́бьему	рыбьей	рыбьему
Α.	= N.  or  G.	рыбыо	ры́бье
I.	ры́бымъ	рыбьей	рыбыим
L.	рыбьемъ	ры́бьей	рыбьемт
	4	Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.		ры́бьи	
G.		ры́бьихъ	
D.		рыбыимъ	
A.		= N. or G.	
I.		ры́быми	
L.		ахиадіар	

Common words belonging to this category are во́лчій = wolf's (волкь), ли́сій = fox's (лиса́), соба́чій = dog's (соба́ка), ко́шечій = cat's (кошка), медвѣжій = bear's (медвѣдь), пти́чій = bird's (пти́ца), Во́жій = God's (Вогь), человѣчій = man's, human (человѣкь), and the ordinal тре́тій = third, e.g. тре́тьяго кла́сса = of the third class, въ тре́тьемь кла́ссв = in the third class, and the idiom тре́тьяго дня = theday before yesterday (lit. = of the third day).

## § 56. Note on the Terminations of Adjectives.

Adjectives ending in -ова́тый от -ева́тый correspond in meaning to English adjectives in -ish, e.g. желтова́тый = yellowish (жёлтый = yellow).

Those ending in -а́стый often imply largeness of the attribute, борода́стый = with a big beard (борода́ = beard, борода́тый = bearded)
Those in -а́стый imply possession of a certain attribute: душа́стый = fragrant, possessing sweet smell (духъ = spirit, духа́ (pl.) = scent).

The terminations -ёхонькій, -ёменькій imply completeness; very often the adjective in its original form precedes the other; these forms are usually used predicatively:

сыть-сытёхонекь = absolutely satiated (with food),

• одинъ-одинёхонекъ = quite alone.

The terminations -енькій and -онькій are diminutive:

ма́ленькій = small (from ма́лый, which is seldom used).

### THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

### § 57. The Predicative Comparative.

The comparative is formed by cutting off the -mi (or -om) of the attributive form of the adjective and adding -me (or -mi) to the stem.

The word thus formed has no singular or plural and is indeclinable; also it can only be used predicatively.

In the case of words of more than three syllables the comparative can be formed by using the positive prefixed by the adverb, 66xhe = more, as in English, e.g. more intelligible.

Comparison can be expressed in three ways: by the words

(1) The (inst. sing. of 4TO), and = than

(2) нежели

followed by the nominative, and (3) by the genitive of comparison.

Examples: длинный = long, ср. длиннѣе,

эта палка длиннъе чъмъ та = this stick [is] longer than that,

красивый = beautiful, ср. красивье,

мой цвёты краси́вёе ва́шихъ (gen.) = my flowers [are] more beautiful than yours,

прямой = straight, ср. прямье,

эта дорога прямые той (gen.) = this road [is] straighter than that, or purely predicatively:

эта палка длиннье = this stick [is the] longer.

If the comparative is followed by  $er\delta = his$ ,  $e\ddot{n} = hers$ , or nxb = theirs, a conjunction is necessary, e.g.

мой домъ краси́вѣе не́жели eró = my house [is] more beautiful than his, since краси́вѣе eró would mean more beautiful than he.

An example of an adjective of more than three syllables:

образованный = cultured; predic. comp. болье образовань (after which a conjunction is necessary) от образованиве,

мы болье образованы чымь они = we [are] more cultured than they. Болье is also invariably used with радь = glad, which has no comparative, and with cef in fresh and fresh an

это болье похоже на + acc. = this is more like . . .

To express less the adverb ménte with similar construction is used, e.g.,

они менъе образованы чъмъ мы = they are less cultured than we.

A very large number of adjectives, however, form their comparatives by adding -e instead of -Be. Some of these are adjectives whose stems originally ended in a consonant, such as K, liable to be softened into a before the palatal B and absorbing it in the process, others are the result of analogical influence or quite irregular. As they are all extremely common words a full list is given:

```
высо́кій = high, tall
                                     ср. выше
низкій = low
                                         ниже
глубо́кій = deep
                                         глу́бже
ме́лкій = shallow (also petty, small
  change, fine print or writing)
                                         ме́льче
mиро́кій = broad
                                         ши́ре
у́же¹
                                         лальне
палёкій = distant
                                         ближе
близкій = near
то́лстый = thick, fat (especially)
                                         толите
то́нкій = thin
                     of solids
                                         то́ныше
rverón = thick (
                 especially of
                                         гуще
жи́дкій = thin (liquids and gases)
                                         жиже
рв́лкій = rare. sparse
                                         рѣже
                                         раньше
ранній = early
долгій = long (of time)
                                         польше
коро́ткій = short
                                         короче
                                      ,,
                                         ковпче
крыцій = strong
 простой = simple
                                         проще
```

<sup>1</sup> Not to be confused with the conjunction уже́ = already.

стро́гій = severe	cp.	строже
тихій $= calm$ , $slow$	"	ти́ше
лёгкій $= light$	22	ле́гче
дорого́й $= dear$	"	дороже
дешёвый $= cheap$	"	деше́вле
бога́тый $= rich$	,,	бога́че
молодо́й = young	,,	моложе
ста́рый $= old$	,,	ста́рше
чи́стый = clean	,,	чище
твёрдый = $firm$ , $hard$	3,	твёрже
сла́дкій = sweet	,,	слаще
го́рькій = bitter	,,,	го́рче
жа́ркій = hot	,,	жарче
большо́й $= big$	,,	бо́льше
ма́лый (ма́ленькій) = little	,,	ме́ньше
хоро́шій = nice, good	11	лучше
худо́й (плохо́й, дурно́й) $= bad$	12	хуже
	,,,	

A few adjectives have two forms of the comparative: тяжёлый = heavy, ср. тяжеле and тяжеле иоздый = late, ср. поэже and поздые.

Худо́й has two meanings, (1) thin (of human beings and animals) and (2) bad; the comparative of the first meaning is худь́е and of the second ху́же. Fat (of human beings and animals) is usually rendered by по́лный (ср. полны́е) = full, though то́лстый (but only in the positive) is also used less politely of human beings.

As regards the accent the following rule may be mentioned: all so-called irregular comparatives (e. g. больше) are accented on the penultimate. Of the others, adjectives of two syllables are accented on the for fe; also show wicked—she. Adjectives of more than two syllables keep the accent in the comparative where it was in the positive, e.g. красивый beautiful—красивые; to this rule there are a few exceptions:

здоро́вый = healthy ср. здоровѣ́е холо́дный = cold ,, холоднѣ́е гори́чій = hot , горячѣ́е

(горя́чій is used of substances, e.g. water, food, also of the emotions; жа́ркій is used especially of the weather; тёплый = warm (ср. тепля́е) is used for everything).

### § 58. The Attributive Comparative.

When the comparative is used, not for purposes of strict comparison but as an attributive adjective expressing a stronger degree of any quality than is expressed by the positive, the form in -ье, &с., cannot be employed. Instead it must be either expressed by using бо́яь́е with the positive or by another special form which some adjectives possess; this form ends in -ьйшій, -айшій, -шій, от -шой and is declined like хоро́шій (от like молодо́й).

As only a few adjectives are commonly used in this form a full list is given:

высо́кій = high, tall, ср. вы́сшій, е. g.

высшіе чины = the upper ranks (of officials)

въ высшей степени = in the highest (lit. very high) degree

ни́зкій = low, ср. ни́зшій, е. g.

низнія ціны = lower prices

низние мъсто = a lower place

да́льній = distant, ср. дальнѣ́йшій, e.g.

дальнѣйшее развите = the subsequent development (there is no attributive comparative from далёкій)

ста́рый = old, ср. ста́ршій, е. g.

ста́ршій брать = elder brother

молодой = young, ср. младшій (from another stem млад-), e.g. младшая почь = younger daughter

[хоро́шій = nice, good], ср. лу́чшій, е. g.

лу́чшіе магази́ны = the superior shops

худо́й = bad, ср. ху́дшій, е. g.

ху́дшіе coptá = inferior sorts

большой = big, ср. большій, е. g.

большею частью = for the greater part

большіе города = the larger towns

малый (маленькій) = little, ср. ме́ньшій = lesser and меньшо́й = younger, e. g.

cáмое меньшее = the very least

меньшой сынь = younger (or youngest) son.

The form in -kamia and -kamia possessed by several adjectives, e.g. слабый = weak, слабыйній, крыпій = strong, крыпчайній, із in meaning rather a superlative (like our very weak, very strong)

than a comparative. In almost all cases except those mentioned the attributive comparative can be and is usually expressed by 6óxte with the positive, e.g.

это болье красивая шляна = this [is] the prettier hat.

Rather + the positive or comparative is expressed by no- and the comparative, e.g.

мев нужна палка по-длиннве = I want (to me is necessary) a rather long(er) stick

я хочу́ что́-нибудь по-лу́чше, по-краси́вѣе, по-деше́въе = I want something rather better (superior), prettier, cheaper (sc. than what you've shown me).

## § 59. The Superlative.

The superlative can be expressed in several ways; the commonest way is to use the pronoun самый with the positive (and in some cases the comparative), e.g.

са́мый краса́вый = most beautiful са́мый некраса́вый = ugliest са́мый лу́чшій = best са́мый плохо́й = worst са́мый скве́рный = worst са́мый большо́й = bigyest са́мый ма́ленькій = smallest са́мый ста́ршій = eldest са́мый вы́сшій = youngest са́мый вы́сшій = highest са́мый на́зшій = lowest са́мый крѣ́шкій = strongest са́мый крѣ́шкій = strongest са́мый сла́бый = weakest, &c.

These can be used either predicatively or attributively, e.g. самый лучшій магазинь = the best shop это будеть самое лучшее = that will be the best (sc. way).

Another way of forming the superlative is by means of the prefix han, but only a few adjectives (always comparatives) are treated in this way and even they are seldom used, the form being considered archaic and pedantic. The commonest are:

наилу́чшій = bestнаибо́льшій = biggestнаиме́ньшій = smallest Another way of expressing very is by means of the prefix npe-, which is followed by the positive; this form is quite common, e. g.

прехоро́шенькій = very pretty преподо́бный = very reverend прескве́рный = very bad

пре- also occurs in the word превосходный = excellent.

The termination -familia, -familia is added to a few adjectives with the meaning of a superlative; the commonest are:

высо́кій = high, superl. высо́ча́йшій вели́кій = great, superl. велича́йшій ма́лый = little, superl. малѣ́йшій

e. g. безь мал'яншаго сомн'янія = without the smallest doubt глубокій = deep, superl. глубочайній чистый = clean, pure, superl. чистыйній любезный = amiable, superl. любезныйній дорогой = dear, superl. дражайній (from a stem драг-).

Yet another way of expressing the superlative predicatively is by the predicative comparative followed by BCEND, e.g.

это мъсто лучше всъхъ = this place [is] the best of all.

### THE NUMERALS

## § 60. The Cardinal and Ordinal Numerals.

пе́рвый
второ́й
тре́тій
четвёртый
пятый
шестой
седьмо́й
восьмой
девя́тый
деся́тый
одиннадцатый
двѣна́дцатый
трина́дцатый

14	четы́рнадцать	четы́рнадцатый
15	пятна́дцать	пятнадцатый
16	шестна́дцать	шестнадцатый
17	семна́дцать	семнадцатый
18	восемна́дцать	восемнадцатый
19	девятна́дцать	девятна́дцатый
20	два́дцать	двадцатый
21	двадцать одинъ одна, &с.	двадцать первы
22	двадцать два, двѣ	двадцать второй
23	двадцать три	двадцать третій
30	тридцать	тридцатый
40	со́рокъ	сороковой
50	пятьдеся́ть	пятидеся́тый
60	шестьдеся́ть	шестидесятый
70	се́мьдесять	семидесятый
80	восемьдесять	восьмидесятый
90	девяносто	девяностый
100	сто	сотый
200	двъ́сти	двухсотый
300	триста	трёхсотый
400	четы́реста	четырёхсо́тый
500	иятьсоть	пятисотый
1,000	тысяча	тысячный
2,000	двѣ ты́сячи	двухтысячный
5,000	иять тысячъ	пятитысячный
10,000	десять тысячь	десятитысячный
100,000	сто тысячь	стотысячный
1,000,000	милліо́нъ	милліонный
		миллионным

# § 61. Declension and Use of the Numerals.

## Одинъ is declined as follows:

		singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	одіїнъ	одна	одно
G.	одного	одной	одного
D.	одному́	одно́й	одному
A.	= N. or G.	однý	одно
I.	однимъ	одной	одни́мъ
L.	<b>о</b> дно́мъ	одно́й	одномъ

-	-
PIM	30/1/

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N.	одни		однѣ
G.	однихъ		однѣхъ
D.	одни́мъ		однѣмъ
A.	= N. or	· G.	= N. or G.
. I.	одни́ми		однѣ́ми
L.	однихъ		однѣхъ

The plural of одинъ is used in several ways, e. g.

Оди́нъ, одна, одно́ is used in all numbers compounded with 1 according to the gender of the substantive which follows, which is always in the nom. sing., e.g.

двадцать одинь годь = twenty-one years сорокь одинь рубль = forty-one roubles тыскча и одиа ночь = the thousand and one nights.

два, двѣ =	two.	о́ба, о́б $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = both$ .	
Masc. Neut.	Fem.	Masc. Neut.	Fem.
N. два	двѣ	о́ба	о́бѣ
G. дв	ухъ	обо́ихъ	обѣ́ихъ
D. дв	умъ	обо́имъ	<b>о</b> бкимъ
A. =	N. or G.	= N. or	r G.
<b>I.</b> дв	умя́	обо́ими	обѣ́ими
<b>L.</b> дв	ухъ	обо́ихъ	ахидо

 ${ true}$ три = three, четы́ре = four.

 N. три
 четыре

 G. трёхъ
 четырёхъ

 D. трёмъ
 четырёмъ

 A. = N. or G.
 = N. or G.

 I. тремя́
 четырьмя́

 L. трёхъ
 четырёхъ

Substantives of any gender which follow ABA, TPH, and VETEIPE, as well as all numerals compounded with these three, are invariably in the gen. sing., not in the nom. pl. The reason for this is that ABBA originally took the dual and the nom. dual masc. ended in -a, i.e. was in appearance identical with the gen. sing. When the dual became obsolete the ending -a still continued to be used after ABBA but came to be looked on as the gen. sing. Subsequently through analogical influence the gen. sing. of feminine nouns was used after ABBA, and also the gen. sing. of nouns of all genders came to be used after TPH and VETEIPE as well as after ABBA. The old dual is still apparent in the word ABBCTM = 200; e.g.

два бра́та = two brothers

три стола́ = three tables

двѣ сестры́ = two sisters (nom. pl. = сёстры)

четы́ре села́ = four villages (nom. pl. = сёла)

два́дцать два́ то́да = twenty-two years

сто три рубля́ = one hundred and three roubles, &c.

If an adjective comes between the numeral and the noun, it can be in either the nom. pl. or the gen. pl., not in the singular, as might be expected, e.g.

двѣ краси́выя (ог краси́выхъ) дѣ́вочки = two pretty little girls три больши́е (ог больши́хъ) до́ма = three large houses.

The effect of putting the numeral after the noun is to make the former somewhat indefinite:

дня два = about two days, two or three days года четыре = about four years.

Of course, if used in any other case but the nominative, both numeral and substantive, and when there is an adjective, that also, agree, the regular cases of the plural being used, e.g.

N. два ма́ленькіе ма́льчика = two little boys

G. двухъ ма́ленькихъ ма́льчиковъ = of two little boys

D. двумъ маленькимъ мальчикамъ = to , . . . &c.

N. TPM cectpm = three sisters

G. трёхь сестёрь = of ,

D. трёмъ сёстрамъ = to " or сестра́мъ, &c.

As regards ófa, ófá the masc. and neut. take the gen. sing., but the fem. takes the nom. pl., hence:

оба брата

о́ба села́ (nom. pl. would be сёла)

but объ сёстры (gen. sing. would be сестры).

Пять = five, and all numerals ending in -ь up to and including тридцать:

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N.		пять	
G.		йткп	
D.		пяти́	
A.		аткп	
I.		онтвп	
L.		пяти	

N.B. восемь has G.D.L. восьми and I. восемью

Пятьдеся́ть = fifty, шестьдесять = sixty, семьдесять = seventy, во́семьдесять = eighty:

	Masc. Neut. Fem.		
N.	пятьдеся́ть		
G.	пяти́десяти		
D.	пяти́десяти		
A.	пятьдеся́ть		
1.	пятью́десятью		
L.	пяти́десяти		

The numbers from пять onwards are really feminine nouns, equivalent for example to the French une cinquaine.

The numbers from 11-19 are composed of the single numerals and ten joined together by  $na = on \ to$ , e.g.

трина́дцать = три на десять = three on to ten.

Двадцать and тридцать are two-tens and three-tens.

In пятьдеся́ть, шестьдеся́ть, се́мьдесять and во́семьдесять the -десять is an old gen. pl. and пятьдеся́ть might be translated in French une cinquaine de dizaines.

Со́рокъ = forty (from the Greek  $\tau\epsilon\sigma\sigma$ ара́ко $\tau$  $\tau$ a) is declined like стохъ, i. e.

G. сорока

D. сороку, &с.,

and gebshocto=ninety and cro = one hundred are declined like a hard neuter noun except when followed by a noun, when they have only one ending for all the cases, viz. -a, e.g.

ста рубля́ми = with a hundred roubles. въ сорока́ слу́чаяхъ = in forty cases.

Also when compounded with other numerals, e.g.

въ ста шести́ дома́хъ = in one hundred and six houses.

Двисти = 200, триста = 300, четыреста = 400, питьеоть = 500, &c.

N. двісти триста четыреста пятьсоть

G. двухъ соть трёхъ соть четырёхъ соть пяти́ соть

D. двумъ стамъ трёмъ стамъ четырёмъ стамъ пяти́ стамъ

A. = N. or G.

I. двумя́ стами тремя́ стами четырьмя́ стами пятью́ стами

L. двухъ стахъ — трёхъ стахъ — четырёхъ стахъ — пяти́ стахъ

## Тысяча is declined like a feminine noun in -ча Singular. Plural.

N. тысяча e. g. двь тысячи пять тысячь

G. ты́сячи двухь ты́сячь пяти́ ты́сячь
 D. ты́сячь двумъ ты́сячамъ пяти́ ты́сячамъ

А. ты́сячу = N. or G.

I. ты́сячей (also ты́сячью) двумя́ ты́сячами пятью́ ты́сячами L. ты́сячь́ двухь ты́сячахъ пяти́ ты́сячахъ

милліонь is declined like столь, but with the accent fixed on the third syllable throughout.

The substantives which follow all numerals ending in -5 from 5 onwards, except compounds of 1, 2, 3, and 4, such as 21, 32, 44, &c., provided the numerals are in the nom. or acc., are always in the gen. pl. The reason for this is that, as has already been stated, nath, &c., are really feminine substantives, and so the noun following is naturally put in the gen. pl. This can be seen in the word nathgrafts = 50, which is really a nom. sing. (nath) followed by a (now obsolete) gen. pl. (gegath) and means a five of tens. If followed by any other cases than the nom. or acc. both numeral

and substantive agree, as in the case of два, три, &c. Besides the numerals which end in -ь, со́рокъ = 40, сто = 100, двъ́сти = 200, три́ста = 300, &c., ты́сяча = 1,000, and милліо́нъ come under the above rule, e.g.

пять рублей = five roubles десять дней = ten days but N.B. съ пятью дётьми = with five children.

## § 62. Cardinal Numbers in Composition.

Одинъ makes одно-, е. g. однодворецъ = freeholder (peasant).

Два makes дву- and двух-, e. g. двугла́вый = double-headed, двусмы́сленный = ambiguous, двуле́тній = two-year-old, but двухэта́жный = two-storied (house), двухме́стный = having two seats.

Три makes тре- in треуго́льный = three-cornered, otherwise трёх-; e. g. трёхлу́тній = three-year-old, трёхрублёвый = of three roubles.

Четыре makes четверо- in четвероугольный = four-cornered, square, otherwise четырёх-; е. g. четырехэтажный = of four floors.

All others end in -n, e.g. семпиттия война = the seven years' war.

Notice the forms: двою́родный брать = first cousin (masc.) двою́родная сестра́ = ,, ,, (fem.) трою́родный, &c. = second cousin.

For numerals in composition in the expression of money-values, of. § 69.

## § 63. Ordinal Numbers.

The ordinal numbers are declined like attributive adjectives, второ́й, писсто́й, седьмо́й, восьмо́й, and сороково́й like молодо́й, тре́тій like ры́бій, and the rest like бѣ́лый. The ordinals have no short or predicative form, hence

я пе́рвый = I am the first.

The following idiomatic uses of the ordinals may be observed:

во-первыхъ = firstly, in the first place во-вторыхъ = secondly во-третьихъ = thirdly самъ-третій = I and two others самъ-четвёртый = I and three others.

For the use of the ordinals in the expression of time, cf. § 68.

### § 64. Distributive Numbers.

These are expressed by prefixing the preposition no to the cardinal numbers; два, три, четыре, and сорокъ remain in the nom. and the following substantive in the gen. sing. or plur., but all the other numbers are put in the dat. with the substantive in the dat. after одинъ and in the gen. plur. after all the others, e.g.

онъ подариль намъ по одной книгь = he gave us one book each

у нась по дв $\S$ , у вась по три, а у н $\alpha$ хь по четыре собаки = we have two, you have three, and they have four dogs each

у обонкъ по пяти лошадей = they have both five horses each.

For the use of the distributives in the expression of money-values, cf. § 69.

### § 65. Multiplicative Numerals.

These are expressed as follows:

разъ = once (lit. = a blow) два ра́за = twice (lit. = two blows) три ра́за = thrice

четь раза =  $four\ times$ пять разъ =  $five\ times$ .

meerь разъ, &c.; разъ is the old gen. plur. still used in a few phrases of this kind where it had become crystallized; the gen. plur. in -овъ originally belonged to only a few nouns, but became general gradually.

In counting (for games, music, &c.) the formula is: pash, два, три, четыре = one, two, three, four.

The three words однажды = once, дважды = twice, and трижды = thrice, were borrowed from Ofd Bulgarian, but are almost obsolete; однажды is still sometimes used for one fine day, or once upon a time, but разъ ог одинъ разъ is more usual.

Notice the following idioms in which pass occurs:

ско́лько разъ (gen. pl.) = how many times, how often

мно́го разъ (gen. pl.) = many times

нъсколько разъ (gen. pl.) = several times

cpásy (gen. sing.) = all at once, suddenly

and especially the difference between:

неразъ = more than once

e.g. я неразъ говори́ль. . . = I have said more than once . . .

and ни разу не . . . = not once

e. g. онъ ни разу не-быль у насъ = he has not once been at our house.

The expression twice as is rendered by въ-дьбе with the comparative, e.g.

это вино въ-двое лучше того = this wine is twice as good as that. ваше перо въ-трое дороже моего = your pen is three times as dear as mine.

For larger numbers it is more usual to turn it, e.g.

этоть театрь въ тысячу разъ красивье чыть тоть  $= this\ theatre$  is a thousand times more beautiful than that.

Expressions such as tenfold, used predicatively, are rendered by въ-деси́теро, &c.

The adjectival multiplicatives:

двойной = double, two-fold, тройной = treble, three-fold,

are quite common and are declined like молодо́й. Simple = просто́й.

## § 66. Collective Numerals.

These are used for the numbers from 2-8 and 10:

 2 дво́е
 6 ше́стеро

 3 тро́е
 7 се́меро

 4 че́тверо
 8 во́сьмеро

 5 пя́теро
 10 деся́теро

двое and трое are declined as follows:

N. двое

G. двойхъ

D. двоимъ.

A. = N. or G.

I. двойми

L. двойхъ

the others:

N. четверо

G. четверыхъ

**D.** четверымъ

A. = N. or G.I. четверыми

L. четверыхъ

These numerals are especially common in phrases such as the following:

насъ трое = there are three of us, which also means we three (it would be impossible to say мы три), у меня четверо детей = I have four children, мхъ было местеро = there were (lit. was) six of them, and with nouns which are only used in the plural, e.g. сани = sledge, местеро саней = six sledges, часы = watch, clock, трое часывь = three watches. Notice сотня = 100 (often sc. soldiers).

N.В. въ-двоёмъ =  $t\hat{e}te-\hat{a}-t\hat{e}te$ 

въ троёмъ = a trois

па́ра (лошаде́й) = a pair of horses

тройка = three horses abreast

четвёрка = four "

Тро́мца = the Trinity

дюжина = a dozen, but must only be used of things, never of people

деся́токъ = ten, e. g. деся́тки ты́сячъ = tens of thousands близнены́ = twins.

Notice the curious idiom  $\pi$  came-gpyre = I and another.

двойка = deuce (at cards)

ceмёрка = seven

тройка = three

восьмёрка = eight певітка = nine

четвёрка = four пятёрка = five

 $_{i}$ 

шестёрка = six

деся́тка = ten.

For the use of the collectives as multiplicatives cf. § 65.

§ 67.

## Fractions.

Полови́на = a half, and is declined like a hard fem. noun, with the accent fixed on the third syllable.

 $2\frac{1}{2}$  = два (ог двѣ) съ полови́ной

 $3\frac{1}{2}$  = три съ полови́ной, &c.

For 11 there is a special word:

полтора́ (made up of пол- and второ́й = half-second) for the masculine, and полторы́ for the feminine, e. g.

N. полтора́ фу́нта (gen. sing.) =  $1\frac{1}{2}lb$ . полторы́ саже́ни " " =  $1\frac{1}{2}fathom$ .

For all the other cases the form полутора is used for both genders, the noun being declined in the plural, e.g. полутора фунтами.

150 = полтора́ста

N. полтора́ста

G. D. I. L. полутораста

Half-in composition is treated as follows:

N. полфунта =  $\frac{1}{2}lb$ .

G. полуфунта

D. полуфунту

A. = N.

І. полуфунтомъ

L. полуфу́нтъ

The plural is полуфунты, &c., like an ordinary hard masculine noun.

полрю́мки =  $half\ a\ wine-glass$  would be declined similarly, but with the feminine substantival endings.

For полдень and полночь cf. § 68.

1/3 = треть, a feminine noun declined like ло́шадь but with the accent fixed on the first syllable;

3 = двѣ тре́ти ;

1 = че́тверть, feminine, declined like треть;

3 = три четверти.

Other fractions are expressed as follows:

 $\frac{1}{5}$  = одна пятая (sc. часть = part);

двѣ патыхъ;

 $\frac{8}{7}$  = три седьмыхъ.

## § 68. Expression of Time.

Чась = hour (N.B. часы́ = watch or clock)

what time is it? = который чась?

at what hour...? = въ которомъ часу . . .? (cf. § 39, obs. 7)

1 o'clock = чась (sc. пе́рвый = first)

at " = въ часъ

1.15 = чась съ четвертью (=  $1\frac{1}{4}$ )

ог че́тверть второ́го ( $=\frac{1}{4}$  of the 2nd)

1.5 = пять минуть второго (= 5 min. of the 2nd)

1.30 = половина второго

ог второго половина

at 1.30 = въ половину второго

```
= безъ четверти два (= without \ 2)
       1.45
    at 1.45
                 ог въ часъ сорокъ пять
       2 o'clock = два часа́
     at
                 = въ два часа́
at about
                 — часа́ въ два
                 = де́сять мину́ть тре́тьяго
       2.10
       2.30
                 — половина третьяго
       3 o'clock = три часа́
       3.50 = безъ десяти (минутъ) четыре
       4 o'clock — четыре часа́
          " = пять часо́въ
                 = половина одиннадцатаго
       10.30
       12 o'clock = двѣна́дцать часо́въ
       12.15 = четверть перваго
                 = половина перваго
       12.30
       12.45 = безъ четверти часъ
       12.55
                 = безъ пяти (минуть) часъ.
               half-an-hour = полчаса́
               2 hours
                          — два часа́
                         = два часа́ съ полови́ной
               21 hours
               1\frac{1}{2} hour = полтора́ часа́.
```

Notice especially the word cytrm (nom. pl. fem.) = the 24 hours, a day and night, e.g.

тро́е су́токь (gen. pl.) = 72 hours
пання су́тки = a whole 24 hours
че́тверо су́токь = four days and nights
пять су́токь = five ,,

minute = мину́та

'one minute' = одну́ мину́ту, мину́точку

'this minute' = сію́ мину́ту

second = секу́нда

this instant = сію́ секу́нду

or сей-чась

in one minute = въ одну́ мину́ту

in one minute = въ одну́ мину́ту
in fire minutes = че́резъ цять мину́ть
in two hours = че́резъ два часа́

N.B. vépest can also give the meaning every other:

че́резъ часъ = (1) in an hour's time

(2) every other hour.

### Notice that:

 $\left\{ egin{array}{ll} about \ two \ hours \ about \ two \ o'clock \ \end{array} 
ight\} =$   $m egin{array}{c}$   $m egin{a$ 

every minute (incessantly) = по-минутно

по́лдень = midday

Gen. полу́дня

Loc. полудни

The phrase по-полудни = after noon is very common, as Russian has no single word for afternoon, e.g.

at 4 p.m. = въ 4 ч. по-полу́дни

in the afternoon = (1) по-полу́дни

(2) днёмъ (inst. of день)

п'олночь = midnight

Gen. полуночи.

N.B. half-a-day = полдня́

half-a-night = полно́чи

daily (adj.) = ежедне́вный

(adv.) = ежедневно.

The days of the week are:

Bockpecétie = Sunday (lit. = resurrection)

понедъльникъ = Monday (= after the holiday)

вто́рникъ = Tuesday (cf. второ́й) среда́ = Wednesday (= centre)

 $egin{array}{ll} {
m epe}{
m gá} & = {\it Wednesday} \; (= {\it centre}) \ & = {\it Thursday} \; ({
m cf.} \; {\it четвёртый}) \end{array}$ 

ия́тница = Friday (cf. пя́тый)

суббо́та = Saturday (= Sabbath).

on Sunday = въ Воскресе́ніе

on Monday = въ понедъльникъ

N.B. on Tuesday = во вторникъ

on Wednesday = въ среду

on Thursday = въ четве́ргъ

on Friday = въ пя́тницу

on Saturday = въ субботу

on Sundays = по Воскресе́ніямъ, &с.

ту нелѣлю

марть

апрѣль

май

HOIL

= April

= May

```
= нелѣ́ля
                 week
                 fortnight = дв\dot{\mathbf{b}} нед\dot{\mathbf{b}}ли
                 this week = эту недълю
                 every week = кажную недѣлю
                 for a week = на нелѣлю
                          = еженелѣльный.
                 weeklu
Notice the idiom:
                 = next week or last week (lit. that week)
  на той недълъ =
                                          (sc. in or during ...).
The months are:
                                                = Julu
    янва́рь = January
                                      іюль
    февраль = Februaru
                                      áвгусть = August
                                      сентябрь = September
             = March
                                      октябрь = October
```

ноябрь

= November

= June декабрь = December they are all masculine.

> in January = въ январъ in Mau = въ ма́ъ.

In the words for the first two and the last four months the accent is always on the ending, in the others it remains throughout where it is in the nominative.

Month = мѣсяпъ — ежемъсячный monthlu the date число́ Jan. 1st пе́рвое января́ (sc. число́) = второго февраля́ (вс. числа́) on Feb. 2nd on March 3rd третьяго марта of the fifth of April (e.g. letter) = отъ пя́таго апрѣ́ля двадцать-перваго мая on May 21st on June 30th = тридцатаго іюня = тридцать-перваго іюля on July 31st what date is it to-day? — како́е (от кото́рое) сего́дня число́ ? year = голъ — полго́ла half-year two years — два то́да three years три го́да — четыре года four years

but five years = пять льть (lit. = summers) six years = шесть лѣтъ till twenty-one years = двадцать-одинъ годъ twenty-two years двадцать-два года twenty-five years = двадцать-пять льть &c. how old are you? — ско́лько вамь лѣть? twenty-three двадцать-три года this year = въ этомъ году́ last year = въ прошломъ году = прошлого́дній last year's next year = въ будущемъ году = въ тысяча восемь сотъ девяносто in the year 1899 девя́томъ году́ (i. e. only the last numeral is an ordinal) = въ (тысяча) девять соть четырin the year 1914 надцатомъ году = тысяча девять сотаго года of the year 1900 the twenties = двадцатые годы of the thirties тридцатыхъ годо́въ in the forties = въ сороковыхъ годахъ (but only of historical periods, not of personal age) century = (1) вѣкъ (2) **стол**ѣтіе. Ago is expressed in two ways: (1) by sa with the acc., e.g. ва́ два го́да = two years ago or (2) by тому назадъ (= to it back), e.g. пять льть тому назадь = five years ago in a year's time = черезъ годъ every other year = (1) черезъ годъ (2) каждые два года every year — каждый годъ yearly = ежегодный Время = Time со временемъ = in time, gradually время отъ времени = from time to time во время (+gen.) = during

во-время

= in time (sc. punctually)

```
= it is time
    пора
    порами
                             = at times
    поро́й
    сь тёхъ поръ
                             = from that time on
    до тъхъ поръ
                             = till then
                             = till now
    до сихъ поръ
    сь какихъ поръ?
                             = since when?
but въ-пору
                             = it fits (of clothes, &c.)
                             = it does not fit.
    не въ-пору
```

### § 69. Expression of money-values.

```
Полтинникъ
                  =\frac{1}{2}-rouble (= 50 kopeks)
рубль
                  = a \ rouble (=1s. \ 11d.)
                  =1\frac{1}{2} rouble
полтора рубля
два рубля́
                  = 2 roubles
два съ полтиной = 2\frac{1}{2} roubles
пять рублей
                  = 5 roubles
пять съ полти́ной = 5\frac{1}{2} roubles
копъ́йка
                  = a \ kopek \ (=\frac{1}{4}d.)^1
                 = 2 kopeks
двъ копъйки
пять копбекь
                  = 5 kopeks
  60 kopeks = шестьдеся́ть копъекъ
             or шесть гривенъ
             = семьдесять копъекъ
  70
             or семь гривенъ
             = восемьдесять коптекь
  80
             ог восемь гривенъ.
```

The following are the colloquial names of the current coins and notes:

```
пятакъ
                         = 5 kopeks (copper)
пятачокъ
                                     (nickel)
гривенникъ
                         = 10
                                     (nickel; алтынь = 3 kopeks)
пятиалтынный
                         =15 ,,
двугривенникъ
                         = 20
                         =50 ,,
полтина
                                     (silver)
цѣлко́вый )
                         = 1 rouble
(ог рубль)
```

<sup>1</sup> Also spelt копе́йка, gen. pl. копе́екъ.

```
трёхрублёвая бумажка
                         = 3-rouble note
пятирублёвая бумажка
                          = 5-rouble note
or синенькая (little blue)
десятирублёвая бумажка )
                         = 10 ,
or красненькая (little red)
двадцатипятирублёвая \
                         =25 ,
  бумажка
сторублёвая бумажка
                         = 100 ...
or радужная (rainbow))
однокопъечная марка = a 1-kopek stamp
       = a 2-kopek
двух-
Tpëx-
                = a 3-kopek
четырёх——
                     = a 4 \cdot kopek
                ,,
семи-
                     = a 7 \cdot kopek
                     = \alpha \ 10 \cdot kopek ,
лесяти-
```

The preposition no followed by a numeral = at . . .; the numerals are in the dat., or acc., cf. § 61:

```
двъ ма́рки по одной копъ́йкъ = two 1-kopek stamps пять ма́рокъ по-двъ копъ́йки = five 2-kopek ,, де́сять ма́рокъ по-семи́ копъ́екъ = ten 7-kopek ,, (от де́сять семи́копъ́ечныхъ ма́рокъ, &c.).
```

The question at what price? is expressed by the idiom no. Temb? e.g.

по-чёмь эти га́лстуки? = at what price (sc. how much) (are) these neckties?

по-два рубля́ = two roubles each по-пяти́ рубле́й = five roubles each.

For the use of the preposition By with similar meaning cf. § 65.

### THE ADVERB

§ 70. The adverb is generally the same as the nominative singular neuter of the predicative adjective, e.g.

ми́лый ми́лая ми́лое = nice; attributive form миль мила ми́ло = ,, predicative form ми́ло = nicely

хоро́шій хоро́шая хоро́шее = good, nice

```
хоро́шъ хороша́ хорошо́ = good, nice
```

хорошо́ = well; all right.

Similarly: пло́хо = badly

ду́рно =

скве́рно = " нехорошо́ = " &c.

Soft adjectives form the adverb with -e instead of -o, e.g.

кра́йній = extreme кра́йне = extremely и́скренній = sincere и́скренне = sincerely

but many of them take -o like the hard adjectives, e.g.

 ра́нній
 = early
 ра́но
 = early (adv.)

 по́здній
 = late
 по́здно
 = late (adv.)

 да́вній
 = former
 давно́
 = long ago

искренній also makes искренно.

Owing to the fact that the present tense of the verb to be is almost quite obsolete in Russian, the adverb is very frequently used as an impersonal verb forming a sentence by itself, e.g.

ра́но = it is early (often = too early) по́здно = it is late (often = too late)

жа́рко = it is hot

тепло́ = it is warm

бли́зко = it is near высоко́ = it is high

хорошо́, что вы пришли́ = it is well (or nice) that you have come возможно, что онъ придёть = it is possible, that he will come невозможно, чтобы онъ пришёль = it is impossible, that he should come.

Several adverbs can be accented in two ways, each equally correct, e.g.

темно́ or тёмно = it is dark

холодно́ or хо́лодно = it is cold палеко́ or палеко= it is far

глубоко́ ог глубо́ко = it is deep (also = deeply figuratively).

Adjectives in -скій form the adverb by changing -скій into -ски, e. g.

ирони́ческій = ironical

иронически = ironically

## THE ADVERB

similarly: поэтически = poetically

дружески = in a friendly way, warmly

хронически = chronically, &c.

The preposition no prefixed to such adverbs gives the meaning in the manner of:

по-прі́нтельски =  $in \ a \ friendly \ way$  по-моско́вски =  $in \ Moscow \ fashion$ 

and if the adverb is one formed from the name of a nationality it can also mean  $in \dots$ , e.g.

по-ру́сски = in Russian по-англійски = in English по-нѣме́цки = in German по-францу́зски = in French

e. g. я умё́ю по-ру́сски ог я говорю́ по-ру́сски = I can (sc. talk) Russian, or I talk Russian

я не понимаю по-нъмецки = I don't understand German.

Notice the idiom:

это по-како́вски? = in what language is that?

Otherwise adverbial expressions with no- are formed by using the dative singular of the adjective or pronoun, e.g.

по-но́вому = in modern fashion

по-ста́рому = in old fashion

по-своему = in one's own way (notice the

по-мо́ему = in my own way or in my opinion s

по-ва́шему = in your way or in your opinion по-вое́нному = in military fashion.

Cf. also § 73.

§ 71.

## Adverbs of Place.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Rather colloquial than literary.

e.g. нигдъ нътъ мъста = there is no place (or room) anywhere нигдъ никого нътъ = there is no one anywhere

не́гив = there is nowhere to . . .

e. g. не́гдь състь = there is no place to sit down

гдб-то = somewhere, in a certain place (sc. I don't remember where, I don't know where, or I don't wish to say where)

e.g. онъ гдѣ-то въ Россі́и = he is somewhere in Russia

гдъ-нибудь = somewhere, anywhere

e. g. онъ проведёть зиму гдынобудь за-границей = he will spend the winter somewhere abroad

гд $\acute{\rm h}$ -бы то н $\acute{\rm h}$  было = wherever you like тамъ и сямъ = here and there.

The adverbs hither, &c., are far more frequently used in Russian than in English; in English we say I am going there, but in Russian always I am going thither; in English where have you put my book? but in Russian whither, &c.; in English where did you get that hat? but in Russian whence, &c.

сюда́ = hither

e.g. пойди сюда́ = come here

туда́ = thither

e.g. я иду́ туда́ = I am going there

куда́ = whither

e.g. куда́ вы положи́ли мою́ кни́гу? = where have you put my book?

никуда́ = nowhither

e.g. я никуда́ не иду́ = I am not going anywhere

не́куда = there is no place whither

e.g. не́куда итти́ = there is nowhere to go to

куда-то = somewhither

e.g. онъ куда-то ушёль = he has gone off somewhere

куда-нибудь = somewhither

 ${f e}.\,{f g}.\,$  пойдёмъ куда́-нибудь = let's go somewhere (anywhere)

куда́-бы то ни́ было = whithersoever

отсюда = hence

e.g. отсюда́ до Москвы́ далеко́ = from here to Moscow it is far

отту́да = thence

e.g. оттуда до насъ нять вёрсть = it is five versts from there to us

откуща = whence

e.g. вы откуда? = where do you come from?

откула-то = somewhence

откуда-нибудь = somewhence

e. g. доста́ньте отку́да-нибудь = get from somewhere (no matter where)

откуда-бы то ніі было = whencesoever.

Notice the following very idiomatic uses of гдѣ and куда́, e.g.

гдѣ мнѣ э́то сдѣ́лать! = I shall never be able to do that!

гдь вамь! = how can you think of it!

этоть городь куда больше того = this town is ever so much bigger than that

это вино коть куда = this wine is simply splendid

гдъ . . . , гдъ . . . = in one place . . . , in another . . .

Notice: наверху́ = up above, sc. upstairs

внизу́ = down below, sc. downstairs

вверхъ = up(wards)

внизъ = down(wards)

снаружи = outside, outwardly

внутри = inside, inwardly.

\$ 72.

Adverbs of Time.

теперь = пош

тогда́ = then

всегда́ = always

когда́ = whenникогла́ = never

e.g. никогда не выь мяса = I never eat meat

не́когда = there is no time to . . .

e. g. мнв теперь некогда! = I've no time for that now!

нъкогда = formerly, sometime

иногда́ = at times, sometimes

Korgá-to = formerly, a long time ago (sc. I don't remember exactly when)

e.g. онь когда-то быль женать = he was married once (sc. his wife is now dead or has disappeared)

когда-нибудь = some time

 ${f e}$ ,  ${f e}$ ,  ${f g}$ ,  ${f a}$ нийте къ намъ когда́-нибудъ  ${f !}=look$  us up some time or other

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когда́-бы то ни́ было = whenever you like
chayáла = at first
```

 наконе́цъ
 = at last

 уже́
 = already

нѣть ещё ещё не = not yet

уже́ нъть, уже́ не = no longer

e.g. eró уже нъть здъсь = he is already gone, he is no longer here

 наконе́цъ
 = at last

 ужо́, пото́мъ
 = later on

 смо́то
 = sam quick!

 ско́ро
 = soon, quickly

 сно́ва, опя́ть
 = again

по-скоръ́ве = as quickly as possible, hurry up!

по́лго = a long time

онъ долго не идёть = he is a long time in coming

давно́ = long ago, long since

сей-чась тотъ-чась

= immediately

сію мину́ту)
тре́тьяго дня = the day before yesterday

вчера́ = yesterday cer'одня = to-day s'aвтра = to-morrow

послъ-завтра = the day after to-morrow.

## § 73.

# Adverbs of Manner.

 $ag{thus} = thus$ 

какъ = how, as, like

ника́къ =(1) in no wise, by no means

e.g. ника́кь нѣть = not at all

никакъ нельзя = it is quite out of the question,

as an interrogative conjunction:

= (2) perhaps, as likely as not ника́къ онъ придёть = perhaps he will come.

The following also is used more as an interrogative conjunction:

нека́кь = I expect, as likely as not нека́кь ѣдуть = I think they're coming

некакъ приходиять кто-то? = has any one been? какъ-то = somehow, sort of, somehow or other

e.g. мнѣ ка́къ-то не ко́чется = somehow or other (I can't explain why) I don't want to

это странно какъ-го = it's queer somehow

ка́къ-то can also mean for instance, and is used as an alternative for the expression какъ напримърь = as for example;

ка́къ-нибудь = somehow or other, by hook or by crook

e.g. устройте это какъ-нибудь = arrange this (matter) by some means or other

прівзжайте къ намъ какъ-нибудь летомъ = come and see us in the summer if you possibly can

это надо сдвлать какь-нибудь = (we) must do this somehow or other какь-бы то ни было = however that may be иначе (or иначе) = otherwise, differently

это надо устроить иначе = this must be arranged differently учись хорошенько, иначе тебя накажуть = learn your lesson well, otherwise they'll punish you

не такъ = differently, but very often sc. wrong (adv.); although there is a word for incorrectly, viz. неправильно, the most common way of saying wrong is не такъ, е. g.

вы не такь сделам = you have done it wrong онь не такь повхать = he has taken the wrong road вы не такь сказам = you have said it wrong я не такь понять его = I misunderstood him

though of course the same expression is often used to mean not thus literally.

Notice the very common adverbs:

вдругь = suddenly
постепе́нно
ма́ло-по-ма́лу } = gradually
напра́сно = in vain (often sc. it
is a pity that)
наро́чно = on purpose
неча́янно = unintentionally
случа́йно = accidentally
осо́бенно = especially

вообще́ = in general

именно = namely

дъйствительно = actually, invery

fact, indeed

коне́чно = of course

навърно = surely, certainly

стъ́довательно = consequently

непремъ́нно = without fail

безпреста́нно = incessantly

включи́тельно = inclusively исключи́тельно = exclusively безусло́вно = absolutely

обыкнове́нно = usually
необыкнове́нно | = unusually, unчрезвыча́йно | commonly

and the idioms:

такъ и сякъ = this way and that ни такъ ни сякъ = neither this way nor that такъ себ $\dot{\mathbf{E}}$  = so-so, fairly, middling ничег $\dot{\mathbf{E}}$  = , , , , , 
такъ = gratis, for nothing, for fun я это только такъ сказаль = I didn't mean it такъ точно = just so (often used by servants = yes) точно такъ = just like that

то́чно = (1) it is just as if

онъ то́чно въ неё влюблёнъ = one would think he was in love with her = (2) really, truly, exactly

у меня собака точно такая = I've got a dog just like that

ро́вно = exactly
ро́вно въ два часа́ = exactly at two o'clock.
Cf. also § 70.

Note on the use of To after adverbs of place, time, and manner. It should be mentioned that To is often used enclitically after interrogative adverbs, not to express indefiniteness, but merely as an expletive, as much as to say, *I wonder*, e.g.

гд $\acute{\text{b}}$ -то он $\acute{\text{u}}$  тен $\acute{\text{e}}$ рь! = I wonder where they are now! когд $\acute{\text{a}}$ -то мы увид $\acute{\text{u}}$ мся! = I wonder when we shall meet again! к $\acute{\text{u}}$ к $\acute{\text{u}}$ -то он $\acute{\text{u}}$  устр $\acute{\text{u}}$ тся! = I wonder how he'll settle his affairs!

After definitive adverbs its use implies surprise, e.g.

тепе́рь-то я понима́ю  $!=now\ I$  understand ! та́къ-то вы по́няли мена́! = is it thus that you understood me! (i. e. thought what I meant).

# § 74. Adverbs of Degree and Quantity.

мно́го = much немно́го dimin, немно́жко ма́ло = little

e.g. дайте мн'в немно́го вина́ (gen.) = give me a little wine ещё немно́яко? = a little more?

```
это мало! = that's little (sc. too little)!
    это мно́го! = that's much (sc. too much)!
    въ этой книгв мало хорошаго = in this book there's but little good
    у меня немного денегь = I have a little money (with emphasis
         on némera)
    у меня немного денегь)
    у меня́ де́негь немно́го \ = I have but little money
    у меня мало денегь
                    (with emphasis on немно́го)
   (for the declension of the plural mhórie, &c., cf. § 54, obs. 9)
сколько = as much, how much
    СКО́лько это сто́пть? = how much does this cost?
    я помогаю ему, сколько могу = I help him as much as I can
ctoлько = so much
    онъ быль столько разъ у меня, что наконецъ онъ мнв надовлъ =
         he has been so many times to see me, that at last \Gamma ve got sick of him
    сколько головъ, столько умовъ = so many heads, so many minds
Tо́лько = only
    не то́лько = not only.
  Notice the idioms:
  да и то́лько
                   = and that's all
  не хочу, да и только = I don't want to, and that's all about it
писко́лько = not in the least (always with the negative repeated)
     я нисколько не хоч\dot{y} = I don't want to in the least
cко́лько-нибудь = at all
     е́сли онъ ско́лько-нио́удь поря́дочный челов в́къ = if\ he\ is\ at\ all
         a decent fellow
нвсколько = some, a few, somewhat
     нъсколько разъ = several times
                рублей = a few roubles
     у него нѣсколько дѣтей = he has several children
     эта шляща нъсколько дороже = this hat is rather dearer
ropáздо = ever se much
     это изданіе гораздо дешевле = this edition is ever so much cheaper
дово́льно
             = enough, fairly
достаточно
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повольно денегь = enough money

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довольно хо́лодно = it is fairly cold.
(N.B. not enough is usually expressed by мало, e.g. мало денегь =
       not enough money)
больше = тоге
    у него больше книгь, чёмь у меня = he has more books than I
    больше всего = most \ of \ all
    по-больше = a good lot, rather more
    дайте мнв по-больше (+gen.) = give me a good lot of. . .
ме́ныне (with gen.) = less
    ме́ныпе всего́ = least of all
    по-ме́ньше (with gen.) = as little as possible
ckopke = rather (sc. sooner)
    я скорве дамъ вамъ, чемъ ему = I would rather give (lit. shall
         give) it to you than to him
черезчу́ръ
    это слишкомъ много = that is too much
    это слинкомъ мало = that is too little
       (N.B. never with Hemhóro)
    симикомъ = more than, above (lit. = with excess)
    ему слишкомъ сорокъ лъть = he is over forty
очень = very, very much
весьма́ = very, quite
    она очень мила = she is very nice
    я её очень люблю = I like her very much
    я о́чень хоч\circ = I want to very much
    у него́ о́чень {мно́го} де́негь = he has {a great deal of reru little } money
       (N.B. never with немного)
BOBCE He = not in the least
    я во́все не хоч\circ = I don't in the least want to
почти́ (что) = almost
    почти темно = it is nearly dark
    я почти что упаль = I nearly fell down
далеко не
             = far from, not nearly, not at all
совсѣмъ не
    онъ далеко не богатый человъкъ = he is far from being a
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я совсвить не понимаю = I don't understand at all

rich man

coвсыть = quite

мнъ совсъмъ удобно = Гт quite comfortable

не совсымъ = not quite

вполнъ́, сполна́, сплошь = entirely

едва́, е́ле, е́ле-е́ле, чуть, чуть-чу́ть = scarcely, with difficulty онъ едва́ умъ́еть писа́ть = he scarcely knows how to write она́ е́ле-е́ле хо́дить = she walks with the greatest difficulty

едва́ не, чуть не, чуть-чу́ть не = almost

меня́ едва́ не уби́ли = they almost killed me она́ чуть-чу́ть не упа́ла = she very nearly fell down (чуть-чуть alone means the tiniest bit)

по крайней мър $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = at least.$ 

# Note on the Degrees of Comparison of Adverbs.

The comparative of the adverb is exactly the same as the predicative comparative of the adjective, e.g.

лу́чше = 
$$better$$
 (adj. and adv.)  
ху́же =  $worse$  , ,

Specifically adverbial forms are:

бо́ль́е = 
$$more$$
 ме́нь́е =  $less$  cf. §§ 57, 84.

Notice:

болье или менье = more or less ни болье ни менье = neither more nor less

and the superlative forms:

наибо́́́иве = (the) most (adv.) наиме́́нве = (the) least (adv.) всего́ ме́́нве = anything rather than.

Comparatives preceded by no- are commonly used adverbially, e.g.

по-выше = higher up (sc. a little higher)

по-ни́же  $= lower\ down$  по-да́льше  $= further\ along$ 

по-ближе = rather closer

and cf. p. 87.

## PARTICLES AND CONJUNCTIONS

§ 75.

$$u = and$$
;

often used to emphasize the preceding word, or with the meaning just, moreover, e.g.

я такъ и думаль! = I thought as much!

этого и недоставало = it was just this that was wanting (= this is the last straw)

въ томъ-то и дъло = that's just the point

я и говори́ль ему́. . . = moreover I had told him . . . , followed by ne = not in the least

я и не хот $\acute{\mathbf{x}}$ ть = I didn't in the least want to, or what's more I didn't want to.

In some cases, when things are mentioned in couples,  $\mu = and$ , e.g. Mywe  $\mu = and$  and wife.

It is important to notice that expressions such as you and I are always introduced by  $\mathtt{MM} = we$ , e.g.

мы съ ва́ми  $= you \ and \ I$ 

мы съ нимъ  $= he \ and \ I$ 

мы съ сестрой = my sister and I.

Any antithesis can be introduced by a, e.g.

онь хочеть, а я не хоч $\dot{y} = he \ wants \ to, \ but \ I \ don't \ (or \ and \ I \ don't).$ 

It can usually be rendered by the English but or while, but very often it begins a sentence and corresponds to our now or and; it takes the place of  $\mathbf{z}$  (=and) whenever any antithesis is to be indicated.

 $\left.\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{Aa} \\ \mathbf{Ho} \end{array}\right\} = but$ 

this indicates stronger antithesis than a; still stronger are

однако однакоже = nevertheless

всётаки = however, after all

-таки can be added as an enclitic to words in the sentence, e.g. . онъ таки поставиль на своёмь = he (sc. in spite of everything) would have his own way

или = or

въдь = for, for you know that

usually used as an expostulation at the beginning of a sentence, e.g. by be shall, uto a he xou $\circ=now\ look\ here,\ you\ knew\ that\ I$  didn't want to

# § 76. Questions and Answers (cf. § 49).

These are introduced either by some interrogative pronoun or adverb, or by the use of the interrogative particle -nn, e.g.

кто вы? = who are you? вы ли это? = is this you? домали баринъ? = is the gentleman at home?

In ordinary conversation the -ли is often omitted, the question being indicated by raising the voice at the end of the sentence. Что is often used at the beginning of a question instead of -ли, e. g.

что мы повдемъ? =  $shall\ we\ go$ ?

This same question could be put in the following ways:

а что, мы поѣдемь? поѣдемъ, что-ли?

If a negative answer is expected páзвѣ is very often used, e. g. páзвѣ вы зна́ете eró? = you don't know him, do you?

If an affirmative answer is expected, use развъ не, е. g. развъ вы меня не узнали? = didn't you recognize me? развъ вы не хотяте? = do you mean to say you don't want to?

Incredulity and amazement are expressed by неуже́ли, е. g.

неуже́ли это правда! = can this possibly be true!

Doubt by врядъ-ли

врядъ-ли это такъ = I doubt whether this is so.

-ли — и́ли — = whether — or —

я не знаю, ўмерь-ли и́ли нѣть = I don't know whether he is dead or not.

The affirmative answer is

да = yes, and the negative нъть = no,

but as often as not a question can be answered by repeating a word contained in the question, e.g.

зна́ете-ли вы его́?— зна́ю— = do you know him?— yes, I do. до́ма-ли ба́рыня?— до́ма = is the lady at home?— yes.

Other common expressions are:

коне́чно = of course eщё-бы! = I should say so!

8 77.

#### Negations.

In negative sentences the negative particle He always comes immediately before the verb if the whole sentence is negatived, but before any particular word if that word only is negatived, e.g.

я не люблю́ его́ = I don't like him

я люблю́ не его́, а её = I like her, not him.

The object, when directly governed by the negative, is always in the genitive, e.g.

онъ не любить своей жены = he doesn't love his wife (but cf. § 81).

If a sentence contains any negative pronoun, adverb, or the conjunction ни — ни —, the negative particle не must be added; two negatives in Russian do not make an affirmative, e.g.

никого́ не ви́жу = I can see no one ничего́ не хочу́ = I don't want anything я ника́къ не ожида́лъ — = I didn't in the least expect —

. There is not = ньть

which always requires the genitive, e.g.

нъть надежды = there is no hope дома никого нъть = there is nobody at home Is there not ? = нъть-ли? § 78. Subordinative Conjunctions.

что́бы = in order that
что́бы не = lest
е́сли = if
хотя́ = although
ногда́ = when
нока́ = while
&c.

(for the use of these cf. §§ 102-5)

(какъ) бу́дто бу́дто-бы stro-бы stro-бы stro-бы stro-бы stro-бы stro-бы

these are very commonly used in reporting facts, incidents, or speeches of doubtful authenticity or credibility, e.g.

онь какь бу́дто не хо́четь = I fancy he doesn't want to онь говори́ть бу́дто не хо́четь = he makes out he doesn't want to она бу́дто-бы нездоро́ва = she is supposed to be unwell.

Other particles used colloquially are

авось = may be Heбось = I expect MOЛБ = says be said b

 $\frac{\text{модь}}{\text{де́скать}}$  = says he, said he (in quoting another's words)

which are all very commonly used by the people, but not much in society or literature.

The particle of is often affixed to the last word of any sentence, especially by servants and shopkeepers and subordinate officials when addressing employers, customers, or superiors, to indicate subservience; it is supposed to be an abbreviation of the words cýдарь = sir and cyдарыня = madam.

# THE PREPOSITIONS AND THE USE OF THE CASES WITH AND WITHOUT PREPOSITIONS

# § 79. Alphabetical list of prepositions:

безъ (безо)	= without	Gen.
(асилд) асилд	= near	Gen.
вдоль	= down	Gen.
витсто	= instead of	Gen.
внутри	= inside	Gen.

вив	= outside	Gen.
во́злѣ	= alongside	Gen.
вокругь	= around	Gen.
вопреки	= against	Dat.
въ (во)	=in, into	Acc. Loc.
для	= for	Gen.
до	= up to	Gen.
за	= for, behind	Acc. Inst.
изъ	= out of	Gen.
изъ-за	= from out, from behind, because of	Gen.
изъ-подъ	= from under	Gen.
кромъ	= besides, except	Gen.
кругомъ	= around	Gen.
къ (ко)	= to	Dat.
ме́жду	= between	Gen. Inst.
ми́мо	= past	Gen.
на	= on, on to	Acc. Loc.
надъ (надо)	= above	Inst.
о (объ, обо)	= about, against	Acc. Loc.
о́коло	= around, about, near	Gen.
оть (ото)	= away from	Gen.
передъ (передо,		
предъ, предо)	= in front of	Acc. Inst.
no	= according to, along, till	Acc. Dat. Loc.
подлъ	= alongside of	Gen.
позади (позадь)	) = behind	Gen.
посреди	= in the midst of	Gen.
послъ	= after	Gen.
подъ (подо)	= under	Acc. Inst.
при	= in the presence of, at, near	Loc.
про	= about	Acc.
противъ	= against	Gen.
ра́ди	= for the sake of	Gen.
сверхъ	= over	Gen.
сквозь	= through	Acc.
среди	= in the midst of	Gen.
съ (со)	= with, from	Acc. Gen. Inst.
7	= at the house of, near, in the posses-	Gen.
	sion of	
че́резь, чрезь	= through, across, over	Acc.

\$ 80.

#### The Nominative.

The nominative is used, as in other languages, for the subject and the predicate of the sentence, e.g.

я твой оте́ць  $=I\left[ am
ight] thy father$ 

though under certain conditions the predicate is in the instrumental, cf. § 84.

The nominative is used for the vocative, except in the three instances mentioned in § 39, e.g.

оте́цъ мой! = oh, my father!

#### sa + nom.

The nominative is always used after the preposition sa = for in phrases such as:

что это за книта? = what book is that? what sort of a book is that? (lit. = what this for book). Cf. German: was ist das für ein Buch?

though when the nom. is the same as the acc. it is not apparent that it is the nom., e.g.

что это за помъ? = what house is that?

§ 81.

## The Genitive.

The genitive is used to denote:

(1) Possession, e.g.

домъ отца = the house of the father

though in this sense it is often replaced by the possessive adj., q.v.

- (2) Qualities, e.g. мальчикь хорошаго характера = a boy of good character человыкь пожилыхь лыть = a man of advanced years.
- (3) Partition, e. g. я хочý воды = I want (some) water хлъба, пожалуйста! = (some) bread, please! кусокъ маса = a piece of meat

often with the meaning of a lot after impersonal verbs: накопилось писемъ = (a lot) of letters has accumulated.

 (4) Quantity, e.g.
 cτακάητο μάκο = a glass of tea (tea in Russia is usually drunk out of glasses) фунть cáxapy = a pound of sugar ма́сса люде́й = a mass (crowd) of people

after adverbs of quantity, e. g.

мно́го дѣте́й = many children ма́ло друзе́й = few friends немно́го (dim. немно́жко) мя́са = a little meat нѣсколько дѣть = some years

for the gen. in -y cf. § 39; for the other adverbs of quantity, and also for their adjectival forms and use, cf. § 74.

- (5) After the numerals 5-20, 25-30, 35-40, &c., cf. § 63.
- (6) Time in certain expressions:

ceróдня = to-day (lit. = of this day) перваго марта = on the first of March (= of the first).

(7) Comparison:

онъ слабъе меня = he [is] weaker than I.

(8) The genitive is always used after certain verbs:

боя́ться опаса́ться = to fear

избѣга́ть = to avoia

искать = to seek просить = to beg

ждать пожилаться = to await, expect

ctoutb = to cost (except in quotations of prices)

лишать = to deprive

каса́ться = to touch, concern

держа́ться = to keep to.

# Examples:

я боюсь моря = I am afraid of the sea

хоти́те-ди вы вина́ = would you like some wine? but я хочу́ эту кни́гу (= acc.) = I want this book

жела́ю вамъ счастли́ваго пути́! = I wish you a good journey! (жела́ю вамъ) всего́ хоро́шаго (лу́чшаго)! (I wish you) everything good (best)! (A very common phrase on saying good-bye or ending a letter.)

я ищу́ кварти́ры = I am looking for a flat

жду ва́шего прітізда = I am awaiting your arrival

сто́нло его́ жи́зни = it cost his life (but in prices the nom. is used)

это касается вась = this concerns you

что каса́ется меня́ = as far as I am concerned

#### notice the idiom:

ми́лости про́симь! = please come and see us (lit. = we crave mercy, a very common form of general invitation).

(9) After certain adjectives in the shorter or attributive form:

nо́лонъ = full

вагонъ полонъ людей = the railway-carriage is full of people

досто́инъ = worthy

она́ досто́йна его́ = she is worthy of him.

(10) In negative sentences the direct object is always in the genitive, e.g.

я не вижу ваннего дома = I do not (= cannot) see your house онъ не сдынить моего голоса = he does not hear my voice я не знаю ванней сестры = I don't know your sister.

One meets with apparent exceptions to this rule, when the object is not directly governed by the negative, but they are only apparent, e.g.

я не могу́ чита́ть э́ту кни́гу = I cannot read this book but

я не читаль этой книги = I have not read this book.

The genitive is also used after

нъть = there is not (il n'y a pas)

не будеть = there will not be

не́-было = there was not

у меня́ нѣть де́негь = I have no money (lit. = to me there is no money)

ceróдня не бу́деть представле́нія = to-day there will be no performance

не бу́деть дождя́ = there will be no rain

не́-было ничего́ = there was nothing

не-было мороза = there was no frost.

(11) The genitive is used instead of the accusative in the singular and plural of masculine nouns ending in -ь, -ь, -й, and

in the plural of feminine nouns ending in -a, -a when they denote things that are or were animate, e.g.

я вижу солдата = I see a soldier онь знаеть отца = he knows the father и любию собавь = I am fond of doas

The old accusative which was the same as the nominative is used in a few phrases which became crystallized before the introduction of this use of the genitive. Cf. § 83.

(12) Notice the idioms:

до́ма = at home

ма́ло того́ что . . . = far from . . .

The genitive is used after the following prepositions:

безъ = without

безъ меня = without me, in my absence

безо всего = without anything

notice безь того, чтобы не сказать вамь = without telling you

до = up to, till, before

до того = to that (sc. extent, = to such an extent)

до того времени = up to that time

до сихъ поръ =  $till\ now\ (cf. \S 68)$ 

до конца́ =up to the end (коне́цъ =end)

до рождества́ Христова = before the birth of Christ

до вась = before your time, before your arrival

notice the idioms:

MHE HÓ DO ŚTOFO = I have no time (or no inclination) for this (sc. now)

имъ не́ до насъ = they have nothing to do with us (sc. they don't bother themselves about us)

до́-сыта = to one's full

изъ (изо before certain groups of consonants) = from out of, of я получиль письмо́ изъ Москвы́ = I have received a letter from Moscow

онь прівхаль изь Англіи = he has arrived from England

изь воды = from out of the water

изъ зо́лота = of gold

изъ стекла́ = of glass

изо дня въ день = from day to day

it is always used in the phrase one of, e.g.

вь одномь изь большихь домовь = in one of the big houses . . . the gen. alone cannot be used in such cases; notice the idiom:

изъ-дому = from (out of) home.

The two following compound prepositions also take the genitive:

пзъ-за = from behind, from beyond, from out of, on account of

пзъ-за границы = from beyond the frontier, sc. from abroad

пзъ-за этого = from out of this, sc. on account of, as a result

of this

изъ-за мое́й болъ́зни = on account of, as a result of my illness изъ-подъ = from under

изъ-подъ стола́ = from under the table.

y = near, at the house of, in the possession of, from.

As the verb to have (MM\*STB) is very seldom used in Russian, recourse has to be had to a paraphrase to express possession, temporary or permanent. This paraphrase consists of the preposition y followed by a noun or pronoun in the genitive and a part of the verb to be (6bstb); the part most commonly used is ectb = is, il y a, though of course by be will be, il y awa, and by a eu are also very frequent. It remains to be said that the word ectb is as often as not omitted, so that as a result the commonest way of saying in Russian:

I have	is	у меня́
thou hast	,,	у тебя́
he or she has	"	у него, у ней
we have	27	у насъ
you have	29	у васъ
they have	,,	у нихъ

The full forms, with ecre added each time after the pronoun, are especially common in relating stories or whenever it is necessary to be particularly explicit, and in questions.

## Examples:

- у меня есть оте́цъ и мать, и два бра́та = I have a father and a mother and two brothers
- у нихъ много денегь = they have a lot of money

у насъ нѣтъ дѣтей = we have no children (нѣтъ is a contraction of не + есть)

есть у вась эта книта? = have you this book?

у меня́ на́сморкь = I have a cold in the head

у него простуда = he has a cold in the chest

#### notice the idioms:

у вась хоро́шій видь = you look well (lit. you have a good aspect)

у него плохой видь = he looks ill.

If the word in the nominative comes before the preposition y and the word governed by it, it regains its original meaning of near, e.g.

собака у меня = the dog is near me.

The distinction is very subtle and must be closely observed, as it is one way of expressing the difference between the definite and the indefinite articles, e.g.

while

собака у меня́ = the dog is near me (not necessarily my dog), i.e. I have the dog, the dog is in my possession, or at my house.

Again,

у него автомобиль = he has a motor-car

but

автомобиль у него = the motor car is at present in his possession, he has the motor car (probably not his own).

v of course often means at the house of, e.g.

они́ у нась = they [are] at our house

у нась сегодня баль = [there is] a dance at our house to-day

я об'єдаю сего́дня у друзе́й = I am dining at the house of some friends to-day.

With the personal pronoun it also acquires the meaning of a possessive adjective, e.g.

у меня́ зубь боли́ть = my tooth aches, I have toothache домь у нась гори́ть = our house is burning голова́ у ней боли́ть = her head aches, she has a headache, кошелёнь у меня́ пропать = I have lost my purse,

In exclamatory remarks it acquires, coupled with the personal pronoun, something of the nature of the ethic dative, e.g.

она́ у мена́ хоро́шая ло́шадь! = that's a fine horse! (sc. of mine)

ты у меня́ краса́вица! = thou art a beauty! (not ironically, sc. you are mine, you are beautiful, and I'm proud of you) она́ у вась умница! = she's a clever-boots! (sc. your little

girl).

Curiously enough after certain verbs y can also mean from, e.g. онъ о́тняль у меня́ де́ньги = he took away the money from me я взяль у него́ кни́гу = I took the (or a) book from him.

сь (со before certain groups of consonants) = from, since, from off

сь головы до ногь = from head to foot (lit. feet)

съ утра́ до ве́чера = from morning till evening

сь января́ = since January сь пя́таго ма́я = from the 5th of May онь упа́ль сь кры́ши = he fell from the roof

ско́лько съ васъ вза́ли? = how much did they take off you? (e.g. in shops, = the colloquial: how much did they rook you?)

сь меня взяли очень дорого = they made me pay dear (lit. they took very dearly from me)

co дня́ на́ день = from day to day co ску́ки = from tedium = from despair

съ ва́шего позволе́нія = with your permission.

Notice phrases such as:

сразу (also съ-разу) = at once

я сразу узнать его = I immediately recognized him

**с**но́ва = again

сы́знова = all over again

сначáла = at first

which are compound adverbs formed by the preposition cs with the genitive of nouns and adjectives.

oth (oto before certain groups of consonants) = from, away from

онь убхаль оть нась = he has gone away from us (sc. left us) я получиль письмо оть брата = I have received a letter from (sc. my) brother

оть радости = from 10y

оть скуки = from tedium

ото всего́ этого = from (as a result of) all this

онъ умеръ отъ этого = he died from (of) this

... отъ дваднатаго мая = . . . of the 20th of May

notice the idiom:

оть роду = from birth.

Phrases are common in which both orb and no are used:

оть Петрограда до Москвы = from Petrograd to Moscow оть начала по конца = from beginning to end

оть времени до времени = from time to time.

There are a number of prepositions which take the genitive which were originally adverbs (some are still used as such), or cases of nouns with or without other prepositions, and having become crystallized are regularly used as prepositions:

близъ = near

близъ Москвы = near Moscow

о́коло = around, about, near

о́коло Ло́ндона = (1) not far from London, (2) around

о́коло двадцати́ льть = about 20 years

\*RPYTÓMB = round, around

\*вокругь )

кругомъ города = round the town

подлё \*возлё = alongside of

возяв меня = alongside of me подлъ ръки = alongside the river

вдоль = the length of, down 

BHE = outside

внъ комнаты = outside the room

\*внутри = inside

внутри комнаты = inside the room

BMECTO = instead of вмѣсто того = instead of that CBEDX'S = over = in addition to that сверхъ того сверхъ шубы = over (his) fur coat (сверхесте́ственный = supernatural)среди́ (\*посреди́) = in the middle of среди́ у́лицы = in the middle of the street (Средизе́мное мо́ре = the Mediterranean) \*позаци = behind позали меня = behind me \*послъ = after пость объда = after dinner. \*ми́мо = pastмимо дома = past the house (cf. мимоходомъ = in passing)  $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{n}=for$ для́ чего́? = what for? онъ сдълаль это для меня  $= he \ did \ this \ for \ me$ кромћ = besides кромв этого = besides this кро́м'в того́ = besides that ради = for the sake of ради Bora! = for God's sake противъ = against, opposite противъ непрінтеля = against the enemy противъ холеры = against cholera = (1) against us, (2) opposite us противъ насъ между = between (but more commonly with the inst.).

Those marked with an asterisk can be used as adverbs as well.

§ 82. The Dative is used after a number of verbs without any preposition:

дать давать} = to give

я даль ей де́ньги = I gave her the money онь даль мнь сло́во = he gave me [his] word

върить = to believe

я вамъ върю = I believe you (but N.B. въровать въ Бо́га

= to believe in God)

VЛИВЛЯТЬСЯ = to be astonished (at)

я удивляюсь этому = I am astonished at this

радоваться = to rejoice (at)

мы радуемся вашему прівзду = we rejoice at your arrival

кланяться = to greet (lit. = to bow to)

кланяюсь всвыь = greetings to all

 $\nabla$ чи́ться = to learn

я учусь русскому язык $\dot{y} = I$  am learning Russian

см'вяться = to laugh (at)

чему́ вы смъётесь? = what are you laughing at?

(N.B. to laugh at some one = c. Hand + inst.)

MEMATE = to hinder

я вамъ не мѣшаю? = I am not in your way?

моли́ться = to pray to

молюсь Borv = I am praying to God

завидовать = to envy

завидую вамъ = I envy you

жа́ловаться = to complain

онъ жалуется мнв на вась = he complains to me of you грозить = to threaten

грозить намь быа = misfortune is threatening us

MCTHTL = to take vengeance on

учить (+acc. and dat.) = to teach

чему́ онъ вась учить? = what is he teaching you?

говорить, сказать = to tell

скажите ми $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = tell\ me$ 

подражать = to imitate

напоминать, напомнить = to remind

напомните мнв объ этомъ = remind me about this

это мнв напоминаеть его = this reminds me of him

писать = to write (but also with къ, cf. p. 131)

я пишу́ ему́ письмо́ = I am writing him a letter

подарить = to give, to present; купить = to buy, and others.

# Also after impersonal verbs:

это мнв нравится = this pleases me, вс. I like this

мн хо́чется = I want to

мнв пить хочется = I am thirsty (= I want to drink. There is no adjective thirsty in Russian)

кажется = it seems

мнъ кажется = it seems to me, sc. I think

мнѣ не спится = I cannot sleep мнѣ нездоро́вится = I am unwell.

Notice the curious expression:

онъ приходится мн $\mathfrak{B}$  (e.g.) да́дей (inst.) = he is my (e.g.) uncle which is used to describe relationships usually of the remoter kind (N.B. приходится usually = one has to +inf.).

The dative is also used in the following common expressions:

мо́жно мн ${s}$ ? = may I?

вамъ невозможно = you may not вамъ нельзя́ = you must not

пора́ намъ! = it is time for us (sc. to go) я радъ ва́шему пріваду = I am glad at your arrival.

After adverbs expressing pleasure, displeasure, heat, cold, &c., e.g.

уго́дно-ли вамъ? = would you like . . . ?

мнъ непріятно + inf. = it is unpleasant to me to . . . .

Also in expressing age:

got to, e.g.

ско́лько вамь лъ́ть? = how old are you ? (lit. = how many to you of years?)

мнв двадцать льть = 1 am twenty

and in a few expressions such as:

эта кни́га вамъ = this book is for you это мнъ = this is for me

цёна́ этимъ мѣста́мъ = the price of these places
онъ намъ сосёдъ = he is our neighbour
онъ мнё врагь = he is an enemy of mine
это не пришло́ мнё въ го́лову = it did not enter my head.

The dative is also used with the infinitive to express is to, has

кому́ написа́ть э́то письмо́? = who is to write this letter? Э́тому не быть = this is not to be.

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Notice the idioms:
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такъ себ $\dot{\mathbf{E}} = fairly$ 

e.g.

какъ это вамъ нра́вится? такъ себъ́! = how do you like that? so-so!

и тому́ подобное = and so on (abbr. и т. п. = &c.) (lit. and to that similar: sometimes also in plur.) домой = homewards, [to] home.

The dative is used after the following prepositions:

къ (ко before certain groups of consonants) = to

я пришёль къ вамъ — I have come to you

приходите къ намъ = come to us, sc. come and see us

приходите ко мнв = come and see me

у меня́ къ вамъ просъба = I have a favour to ask you

къ ве́черу = towards evening

кь о́сени = towards autumn, by the autumn

къ началу октября́ = by the beginning of October
къ концу́ ноября́ = by the end of November
къ пе́рвому а́вгуста = by the first of August

къ пяти часа́мъ = by five o'clock.

Notice the idioms:

къ сожальнію = unfortunately, to my regret

къ несчастію = unfortunately къ моему́ удивле́нію = to my surprise

это вамъ къ лицу = that suits you (of clothes), (lit. =

to you to the face)

къ моймъ нога́мъ = (he fell) at my feet

лицо́мъ къ лицу́ = face to face къ како́й ста́ти? = to what purpose?

RCTÁTEL = by the by, that reminds me.

вопреки́ = against, in spite of вопреки́ прили́чіямъ = in defiance of decorum

no = along, over, according to

по ўлиць = along the street по-морю = over the sea, by sea

по-мо́ему от по моему́ мнѣнію = in my opinion

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почему́? = why? (= on what grounds?)
потому́ что (abb. п.т.ч.) = because
по пре́жнему = as formerly
по ста́рому ста́лю = according to new, old style
```

(in dating letters, the Russian (Julian) calendar being thirteen days behind ours (Gregorian); the abbreviations are: c.c., n.c.).

Notice the very common idioms:

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по-тихо́ньку = quietly, on the sly
по-немно́жку = gradually, little by little
по жель́знон доро́гь = by rail
по слу́чаю + gen. = on the occasion of . . .
по нево́ль = perforce
по мое́й ча́сти = in my line, in my department (lit. part)
я уда́риль его́ по головь́ = I hit him on the head
я уда́риль его́ по плеча́мь = I hit him on the shoulders
по возвы́шеннымь ць́намь = at raised prices (sc. higher than usual).
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## also distributively:

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по ноча́мъ = at night (sc. frequently)
по утра́мъ = in the morning (sc. every morning)
по Воскресе́ніямъ = on Sundays, every Sunday
онъ даль всѣмъ намъ по я́блоку = he gave us all an apple each
по пяти́ рубле́й (dat. + gen. pl.) = at five roubles.
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# § 83. The Accusative is used

 To denote the object of a transitive verb, e. g. я любию свою родину = I love my country.

It has already been remarked that the acc. sing. and plur. of masculine nouns ending in -a, -a, and -\( \pi \), and the acc. plur. of feminine nouns ending in -a, -a is the same in form as the gen. sing. and plur. in the case of animate, and the same as the nominative in the case of inanimate nouns.

The same rule applies to all adjectives and to all the pronouns except the personal pronouns and kto = ioho; in these the acc. is always the same as the gen, even the acc. of the neuter pronoun

оно =it being the same, not as the nom. but as the gen., viz. ero.

It must be observed, however, that this was not always so; the old acc. was invariably the same as the nom., and this is still to be seen in a few expressions which became crystallized before the gen. came to be used for the acc. in the case of animate things; such phrases, amongst others, are:

выйти замужь = to marry

(N.B. of the woman only; the phrase literally means to go out behind a man or a husband)

eró произвели въ полковники = they have promoted him to be a colonel (lit. into the colonels)

звать въ гости = to invite (lit. = to call into guests, sc. as quests)

поступить въ солдаты = to enlist.

(2) To express duration of time and distance:

 эту зиму
 = this winter

 цёлое дёто
 = the whole summer

 прошлую о́сень
 = last autumn

 бу́дущую весну́
 = next spring

 одань голь
 = (for) one year

кру́глый годь = the whole year round прию недраю = (for) a whole week

мы прошли двѣ версты́ (acc. + gen. sing., cf. § 61) = we have walked two versts.

(3) After the word жаль = pity, e.g.

мнѣ жаль вашу сестру = I am sorry for your sister

ему́ жаль её = he is sorry for her мнь его́ жаль = I am sorry for him.

The accusative is used after the following prepositions:

вь (во before certain groups of consonants) = into

я ѣду въ Россію = I am travelling to Russia я ѣду въ Ло́ндонъ = I am travelling to London

въ Кры́мъ = to the Crimea

онь вошёль въ комнату = he came into the room.

## Notice the following idiomatic uses:

въ понедельникъ = on Monday во вторникъ = on Tuesday въ день моего рожденія = on my birthday въ два часа́ = at two o'clock разъ въ день = once a day два раза въ недълю = twice a week во что-бы то ни стало = cost what it may въ два рубля = costing two roubles въ рубль = at one rouble въ два этажа = two stories (high)въ тысячу разъ лучше = a thousand times better въ старину = in the old days во́-время = in time во время + gen. = during (the time of) въ пору = it is the right size мить не въ пору = it doesn't fit me вамъ въ пору = it fits you

ВБ го́ру = up-hill. (Сб. вверхъ = upwards = downwards.)

## Notice the common expressions:

втеченіе + gen. (also written въ теченіе) = in the course of всятдствіе этого (also въ с . . .) = as a result of this въ продолженіе цёлаго года = for a whole year.

# sa = behind, beyond, for, by

я в́ду за грани́цу = I am going abroad (lit. beyond the frontier)

онь пов́халь за́-городь = he has gone out of town онь взяль меня́ за́ руку = he took me by the hand ся́демь за столь = let us sit down to table ей за́-пятьдесять лють = she is more than 50.

## Always after the following verbs:

 (по) благодари́ть
 = to thank

 купи́ть
 = to buy

 продавать
 = to sell

 продать
 = to pray

and expressions such as praying for, fighting for, e.g.

я благодарю́ вась за ва́ше пнеьмо́ = I thank you for your letter я купи́ль это за ру́бль = I bought this for a rouble онь мнѣ про́даль ло́шадь за пять соть рубле́й = he sold me a horse for 500 roubles

моли́тесь за меня́ = pray for me

жизнь за царя́ = (one's) life for the tsar

за Англича́нъ = for (sc. in favour of) the English.

Notice the idioms:

за кого вы меня принимаете? = whom do you take me for?

выходить за . . . = to marry

она́ вышла за нъ́мца = she married a German за кого́ она вышла? = whom did she marry?

For the phrase выйти замужъ cf. p. 133.

Also in certain expressions of time and distance:

она умерла за́ два часа́ до ва́шего прів́зда = she died two hours before your arrival

мы живёмь за пять вёрсть оть станціи = we live five versts from the station

за ца́рствованіе Алекса́ндра второ́го = in the reign of Alexander II

за́ лъто = in the course of the summer (sc. when it is over).

Notice the idioms:

за хвость, за́ голову = by the tail, by the head

за́-руку, за́-ногу = by the hand, by the leg or foot заодно́ = in concert with sa то́ = on the other hand.

 $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a} = on to$ 

положи́те кни́гу на сто́ть = put the book on the table онь лёгь на́-бокь = he lay down on his side на коль́ни = on to (one's) knees на зе́млю = on to the ground.

```
Notice the following idiomatic uses:
    на-ночь
                             = for the night
    онь прівхаль на цільй місяць = he has come for a whole month
    дня на-два
                             = for about two days
                             = (on) the next day
    на другой день
    на следующій разь (ог)
                             = for next time
       на другой р.)
                             = up-hill
    Há-ropy
                             = to the seaside
    на-берегь моря
     Вхать на Кавка́зъ
                             = to travel to the Caucasus
                             = dearer by two roubles
     на-два рубля дороже
     на пятьдесять копъекъ дешевле = cheaper by 50 kopeks
     на лицо
                             = present (sc. to be present), in cash
     на силу
                             = with great effort
                             = a fresh
     на-ново
    на-скоро = quickly (sc. without taking much time or trouble)
     положиться)
                             = to have confidence in any one
                 на кого
     надѣ́яться
     ку́шайте на здоро́віе! = eat it to your health (a common phrase
       when showing hospitality)
                             = to the North
     на сѣверъ
                             = to the South
     на югь
                             = to the East
     на востокъ
     на запалъ
                             = to the West
     это похоже на васъ
                             = that is like you (of a portrait)
     это ни на что не похоже = that is not like anything (sc. un-
       utterably bad, abominable)
     на память
                              = from memory
     на-показъ
                              = for show
                              = upstairs (sc. motion up)
     на-верхъ
     налѣво
                              = to the left
     направо
                              = to the right
                              = at last
     наконецъ
     наизусть
                              = by heart (e.g. recitations, &c.)
 o (before vowels объ) = about, against
                              = about this time
     объ эту пору
                              = I have hurt myself against the tabla
     я ущибся о столь
      я опёрся о колонну
                              = I leant against a column
      рука объ руку
                              = arm in arm
```

no = till

оть пе́рваго (sc. числа́) по три́дцать-пе́рвое (sc. число́) января́ = from Jan. 1st-31st

по колѣни въ водѣ

= up to the knees in the water.

Notice the idioms:

по тý сто́рону = (over on) that side (of the river)

по правую руку = on the right-hand side по лъвую руку = on the left-hand side.

For the use of no + acc. in expression of money values, cf. § 69.

подъ = under

положите эту подущку себв подъ-голову = put this pillow under your head

подъ-руку (взять кого) = to take some one by the arm подъ-гору = down-hill.

npo = concerning

про кого вы говорите? = about whom are you talking?

Notice the idiom:

про себя́ = to oneself

e. g. они смъ́ались про себя́ = they were laughing to themselves (про себя́) = (aside).

ckbo3b = through

ви́дно сквозь дымъ = visible through the smoke

CKBO35 NBC5 = through the forest, of anything that is visible through the trees of the forest

while че́резъ льсь = through the forest, e.g. walking through the forest.

съ (co before certain groups of consonants) = about, like

онъ съ меня́ (sc. ро́стомъ) = he is (as big) as me (sc. in growth)

съ недвию = about a week.

че́резь (от чрезь) = through, across, via, over

 че́резъ ръ́ку́ = across the river, or through the river (вс. motion across)

че́резъ Неву́ = across the Neva

че́резъ Москву́ = across, through, or via Moscow че́резъ кого́? = through whom? (sc. by whose agency?).

## In expressions of time:

че́резъ полъ-часа́ = in half an hour's time че́резъ недѣ́лю = in a week.

## It also can mean every other:

че́резъ чась = in an hour's time, or every other hour че́резъ день = every other day.

#### The Instrumental.

§ 84. The instrumental case denotes primarily, as its name implies, the instrument or agent by which anything is done, e.g.

писать карандаціомъ = to write with a pencil

это письмо написано мной = this letter [was] written by me

руками = with [one's] hands ногой = with [one's] foot, or leg.

#### It denotes manner:

парохо́домъ = by steamer

я ѣ́ду въ Россію́ парохо́домъ = I am travelling to Russia by steamer

сухимъ путёмъ = overland (lit. by dry way)

я повду сухи́мъ путёмъ =I shall go overland

 мо́ремъ
 = by sea

 толной
 = in a crowd

 стрѣдой
 = like an arrow

льсомъ = by (sc. through) the forest

доро́жкой = by the path по́лемъ = by the field нало́женнымъ платежемъ = pay on delivery.

# наложеннымъ платежемъ = pay он aev

## Notice the idioms:

Éxatь máromь = to drive (or ride) at walking-pace, 'au pas' инти пъпкомъ = to go on foot.

## and especially:

Examb Bepront = to ride (sc. on horseback); Bepre = top, and the phrase literally means to travel as the top (sc. the upper part).

The phrase кататься верхомь, lit. = to roll along as the top is also used; these two phrases are the only means of saying to ride in Russian. Notice also:

ря́домъ = side by side гусько́мъ = in single file таки́мъ путёмъ = in this way

какимъ образомъ? = in what manner, how?

какимъ способомъ? = by what means?

такимы образомы = in this (lit. such) manner, like that, and often means if you do this . . . .

посре́дствомъ + gen. = by means of

какимъ or которымъ повздомъ? = by which or what train?

мъста́ми = in places

большею частью = for the most part

разомъ = all at once, all together

оптомъ, гуртомъ = (sell by) wholesale

пъликомъ = wholly, completely, all

лицо́мъ къ лицу́ = face to face
одни́мъ сло́вомъ = in one word
други́ми слова́ми = in other words
eró слова́ми = in his words

само-собой = of its own accord, automatically

само́ собою разумъ́ется = cela se comprend

она́ хороша́ собо́й = she is good-looking (here the собо́й merely amplifies the sentence; if anything it emphasizes the compliment, but is really untranslatable in English)

во́лей-нево́лей = willy-nilly.

In certain expressions of the time of day and the seasons:

 весной
 = in the spring

 детомь
 = in the summer

 осенью
 = in the autumn

 зимой
 = in the winter

(when preceded by the demonstrative pronoun always use the acc., cf. § 83)

днёмь =  $by \, day$ , and also very frequently =  $in \, the \, afternoon \,$  ночью =  $by \, night$ .

N.B. (1) this morning is сего́дня у́тромъ (lit. = to-day in the morning)

(2) this evening is сего́дня ве́черомъ (lit. = to-day in the evening), similarly за́втра у́тромъ = to-morrow morning, &c.

It is used in expressions such as:

чёмы богаты, тыть и рады = what we are rich in, to that you are welcome (lit. = with that we are glad, so. that we will gladly give).

It denotes origin:

ро́домъ Англичанинъ = by birth an Englishman.

It is used in some expressions of measurement:

ръка́ ширино́й въ поль-версты́ = a river about half a verst wide (in width)

гора́ въ ты́сячу фу́товъ вышино́й = a hill 1000 feet in height

also глубиной = in depth, длиной = in length.

In comparison of measures, e.g.

я го́домъ ста́рше его́ = I am older than he by a year though these phrases are more commonly expressed by на +асс. (cf. § 83) от въ + разъ (cf. §§ 65, 83)

тъмъ пу́чше = all the better тъмъ не ме́нъе = nevertheless тъмъ бо́лъе = all the more.

The instrumental is always used after certain verbs:

дюбоваться = to admire (but only literally to gaze at)

нользоваться
воспользоваться
= to take advantage of, to profit by

пользуюсь этимъ случаемъ  $+\inf$ . = I am taking advantage of this occasion to . . .

гордиться = to be proud of

я горжу́сь ва́ми = I am proud of you дорожи́ть = to value highly

же́ртвовать поже́отвовать = to sacrifice

> онь пожертвоваль всёмь своимь состояниемь = he sacrificed the whole of his fortune

владъть = to rule, command

Англія владъеть Индіей = England rules India

онь хорошо владветь русскимь языкомь = he has a good command of the Russian language

командовать = to be in command over (troops, &c.)

•руководить = to lead

управлять = to manage

онь управля́сть моймь имѣніемь = he manages my property завѣнывать = to look after

она зав'ядуеть домомь = she looks after the house править = to drive

онъ хорошо́ править лошадьми́ = he drives a carriage (lit. horses) very well.

пытать = to breathe

па́хнуть = to smell (intrans.)

чёмь это пахнеть? = what does this smell of?

A very common and at first sight puzzling use of the instrumental is that called *predicative*. The predicate is put in the instrumental instead of in the nominative whenever any temporary or hypothetical condition is to be indicated, e.g.

когда́ я быль мальчикомь = when I was a boy

онъ будеть великимъ человъкомъ = he is going to be a great man

лежание у него не было ни необходимостью ни случайностью — tying down was in his case neither a necessity nor an accident

послать . . . . заказны́мь = to send . . . registered.

The predicative instrumental is used after the following verbs:

дѣлаться становиться = to become

называться = to be called

звать = to call

меня́ зовуть Ива́номь = they call me Ivan, i.e. my name is Ivan

служить = to serve as

это служило мн $\upbeta$  предлогом $\upbeta$  = this served me as an excuse  $\upbeta$  to be considered

это счита́ется хоро́шимъ жа́лованіемъ = that is considered good pay

это счита́ется невѣжливымъ = that is considered rude

слыть = to have the reputation

 $egin{array}{lll} {
m poд int}{
m Kas int}{
m Ecs} &= to\;be\;born \ &= to\;seem \end{array}$ 

діло каза́лось серьёзнымь = the matter seemed serious притвора́ться = to pretend to be.

The instrumental is used after the following prepositions:

3a = behind, for (to get something)

за грани́цей = abroad (lit. = beyond the frontier)

за столо́мъ = at table

за об'ядомъ = at dinner

за́-городомъ = out of town

я пришёль за деньга́ми = I have come for the money на́до посла́ть за до́кторомъ = (we) must send for the doctor зачѣмъ? = why? (sc. with what object?)

за тъмъ чтобы + inf. = in order to . . .

заты́= after that, then.

It is always used of a woman being married (cf. 3a+acc., § 83):

OHÁ SÁNYKEMB = she is married

за къмъ она́ за́мужемъ? = to whom is she married?

ме́жду = between (also but less often with gen.)

ме́жду Петрогра́домъ и Москво́й = between Petrograd and Moscow

между нами = between us (both of concrete objects and of emotions), amongst us между прочимь = amongst other things.

Notice the idioms:

ме́жду тымь = meanwhile, cependant.

надь (надо before certain groups of consonants) = above надь головой = above (my) head надо мной = above me (only literally)

передъ (передо before certain groups of consonants) = before, in front of

передъ домомъ = in front of the house

передо мной = in front of me

пе́редь этимь = before this (temporal)

передъ объдомъ = before dinner

передь тымь накь + inf. = before + verb (e.g. going).

подъ (подо before certain groups of consonants) = under, near

подъ землёй = underground

подо мной = under me

подъ этимъ условіемъ = on this condition

подъ какимъ предлогомъ? = under what pretext?

подъ Москвой = near Moscore

подъ Ло́ндономъ = near London.

сь (co before certain groups of consonants) = with

со мной = with me

съ большимъ удовольствиемъ = with great pleasure

сь наслажденіемь = with relish

съ трудомъ = with difficulty

со вре́менемъ = in course of time

СЪ КЪМЪ ВЫ ГОВОРИ́ЛИ? = with whom were you talking?

сь какой цёлью? = with what object?

съ Бо́гомъ! = good-bye! (lit. with God)

Bors съ ними! = never mind them! (lit. God be with them).

§ 85. The Locative is only used with prepositions, hence it is sometimes called the prepositional case.

The locative is used with the following prepositions:-

въ (во before certain groups of consonants) = in

въ Москвъ = in Моссою

во ми $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = in \ me$ 

во Фра́нціи = in France

въ Крыму́ = in the Crimea (cf. § 39, Obs. 7)

въ концъ = at the end

въ нача́лъ = at the beginning

Bo cub = in one's sleep or dreams.

### Notice the idioms:

въ концъ́-концо́въ = at long last, finally въ са́момъ дѣлѣ = in very fact.

### In certain expressions of time:

въ слѣдующемъ году́ = the following year
въ тако́мъ-то году́ = such and such a year
въ пе́рвомъ часу́ = between 12 and 1
во второ́мъ часу́ = between 1 and 2.

### For other similar expressions, cf. § 68.

вта́йн'в = secretly впосл'в́дствін = subsequently

вполнѣ = completely, thoroughly.

### Ha = on

на столь = on the table

на берегу́ мо́ря = on the sea-shore, at the seaside

на боку́ = on (one's) side на со́лнцъ́ = in the sun на дворъ́ = in the yard

## (this is the commonest way of saying out of doors)

на льду́ = on the ice (fr. лёдь)

на мосту́ = on the bridge

на службъ = in service (sc. Government service)

на не́б $\dot{b}$  = in heaven, in the sky на св $\dot{b}$ жемъ во́здух $\dot{b}$  = in the fresh air на св $\dot{b}$ т $\dot{b}$  = in the world на свобод $\dot{b}$  = at liberty.

### Notice the idioms:

на своёмъ въку = in one's time, in one's life

наяву́ = in reality (as opposed to in one's sleep)

на лошадя́хъ = by carriage, driving (lit. = on horses)

на-единъ = alone, in solitude.

# It is used of men marrying, after the verb жениться = to marry:

онъ жени́лся на ру́сской = he married a Russian на ко́мъ онъ жена́ть? = to whom is he married ?

## Notice the compound adverb:

накану́нь = on the eve.

o (объ before vowels and often before consonants also; обо before certain groups of consonants) = concerning

обо мнѣ = about me

o or объ чёмь вы говори́ли? = what were you talking about?

обо всёмъ = about everything.

## In certain expressions of number:

о двухъ концахъ = with two ends.

no = after

по прівідь = on or after arrival по нашемь возвращеній = on our return.

### Notice the idioms:

скучать по родинь = to be home-sick (for one's country) по чёмь? = at what price? по чёмь аршинь? = how much a yard? cf. § 69.

при = in the presence of, in the time of, near при мнѣ = in my presence, in my time, by me, near me, on me

при двор $\hat{\mathbf{h}} = at$  court

при Екатери́н ${\bf \check{b}}$  Вели́кой = in the time of Catherine the Great

при би́твѣ подъ Ле́йпцигомъ = at the battle of (lit. near, under) Leipzig.

## Notice the idioms:

при чёмъ = in addition to which, besides which

при томъ = besides that

при всёмъ томъ = in addition to all that, in spite of all that при всёмъ моёмъ стара́ніи = in spite of all my efforts.

### THE VERB

§ 86. The Russian verb consists of the following parts:

Present
Past
Future
Conditional

Imperative
Infinitive
Present Gerund
Past Gerund
Past Participle
Past Participle
Present Participle
Present Participle
Past Participle
Past Participle
Past Participle

The present is the only tense which has personal endings. The past is a tense only in name; in reality it is a participle whose endings vary not according to person, but according to number and gender. The future in form is exactly the same as the present. The conditional in form is exactly the same as the past. There is no subjunctive. There is no passive of any part of the verb except the participles, and if anything is expressed in the passive, it must be done by means of participles or of the reflexive verb (cf. § 110).

Use of the Personal Pronouns with the Verb.

The personal pronouns:

я = I
ты = thou
онь, она, оно = he, she, it
мы = ve
вы = you
она (М. N.), онь (F.) = they

are used in Russian with the verbs very much as in English; in certain cases they are, however, omitted altogether, e.g. when the verb is used, as it frequently is, in an answer in reply to a question instead of ga = ge or ge or ge or ge or ge.

Question: были-ли вы у нихъ вчера? = did you go to see them yesterday? (lit. were you at their house?)

Answer: 6 MAD = I did (lit. I was)

Question: бу́дете-ли вы у него́ сего́дня? = will you go to see him to-day?

Answer:  $6\cancel{y}$ дy = I shall

Question: можете-ли вы сдёлать это для меня ? = can you do this for me?

Answer:  $Mor\dot{y} = I can$ .

The pronoun one is comparatively rarely used; its place is often taken by ero, e.g.

это было очень давно = it was a very long time ago or it is omitted altogether, e.g.

тепло сегодня = it is warm to-day.

When it is used it often acquires the meaning of the thing we were referring to or what you were talking about, e.g.

оно́, коне́чно, непрія́тно = (a thing like) that (sc. which we were discussing) is, of course, unpleasant.

§ 87.

### The Present.

#### REGULAR VERBS.

In Old Bulgarian the verbs are divided into five classes, and for etymological purposes Russian verbs can be similarly treated. For practical purposes, however, it is best to divide the verbs into only two classes, not according to the infinitive, but according to the endings of the present. The few irregular verbs which there are, which in Old Bulgarian form the fifth class, are in Russian not sufficiently numerous to form a class by themselves, but as they are very important they are given in full in a separate paragraph. For the regular verbs there are two sets of personal endings, which are added to the verb-stem sometimes directly,

sometimes with a vowel (-a-, -n-, -h-, -y-, -no-) or a consonant (-n-) inserted between stem and ending.

The first difficulty to be faced is the fact that though every present may be put in one class or the other, the infinitives are much more difficult to classify, because verbs having various infinitive endings have identical present endings, and others having identical infinitive endings have different present endings. In the lists of verbs given they are arranged alphabetically according to the last letter of the present stem as seen in the 3rd pers. plur., those ending in consonants + y first, those ending in vowels + 10 later.

Another difficulty is that the palatal qualities of the vowels in the personal endings have in many cases affected the last consonant of the stem, so that the present stem differs from the infinitive stem. The present endings of the two main classes of Russian verbs are the following:

	<b>I.</b>	II.
(1	-у (ог -ю) -ешь <sup>1</sup> -еть	-ю (or -y)
Sing. 2	-ешь 1	-ишь
(3	-etl	-птъ
(1	-емъ	-имъ
Plur. 2	-ете	-ито
( 3	-уть (ог -ють)	-ять (or -ать) <sup>2</sup>

Class I comprises all the verbs contained in the first three classes in Old Bulgarian; in that language the endings of class I were 2nd sing. -&WH, 3rd sing. -&T'K (-e/i, -et, cf. § 36), &c., of class II -H&WH, -H&T'K (-ne/i, -net), of class III -H&WH, -H&T'K (-je/i, -jet); in Russian these appear respectively as -je/, -jet, -nje/, -njet, and -je/, -jet, i.e. the 2nd and 3rd sing. and 1st and 2nd pl. all begin with -je (pron. -ye). Of the verbs which originally belonged to class I, those whose stems end in r or k change these letters to k and y before the palatal vowels of the endings -e/, -je/, &c., but retain the r and k before the -y of the 1st sing. and 3rd plur. The

When unaccented these endings (3rd plur. of class II) are generally pronounced -work (or -yrk).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> When the accent falls on the personal ending the 2nd and 3rd sing. and 1st and 2nd pl. of class I are pronounced: -ёшь (cf. § 14), -ёть, -ёть, -ёте.

stems of the verbs which insert -H- between the stem and the personal ending undergo no change. Of the verbs which originally belonged to class III, those whose stems end in vowels take the endings -10, -111, -

In class II the first person singular is often disguised as -y (i.e. apparently the same as in class I); the reason is that the -10 of the 1st sing. changes final k and T of the stem into Y or M, final T, A, and 3 into M, and final c and X into M. It also becomes y when the stem itself ends in Y, M, or M. Similarly the A of the 3rd plur. becomes a when the stem ends in Y, M, or M. In class II those stems which end in H, B, and M insert A before the -10 of the 1st sing.

Another difficulty which the beginner has to face is that of the prepositions in composition with the verbs. Verbs compounded with a preposition (i.e. preceded by it) are infinitely more numerous than those without, and this fact makes the beginner think at first sight that the language possesses an infinitely larger number of verbs than it really does. When reading Russian the beginner should always try and see the root or stem of each verb and cut off the preposition or prepositions which precede it. For this purpose it is important to learn the prepositions given in §§ 79-85, and also to compare them with those given in dealing with prepositions in composition with verbs. As the prepositions always have an especial effect on the meaning of each verb, only simple verbs have been given in the following lists, the alteration in meaning effected by the various prepositions being discussed later. Many of the verbs given in these lists are extremely uncommon, others not used in their simple form: the student should not attempt to learn the lists, but only use them for reference. The list of the verbs under class I contains all the difficult primary verbs which belong to this class; otherwise the lists given are very far from being exhaustive; they are merely intended to be representative. The verbs are arranged alphabetically according to the last letter of the present stem, those ending in a consonant + y first, those ending in a consonant + 10 next, and lastly those ending in a vowel + 10. Only the 1st and 2nd persons sing, and the infinitive are given. In class I, whenever the 1st sing, ends in -y the 3rd pl. ends in -yrb, when the 1st sing, ends in -10 the 3rd pl. ends in -1072. In both classes, on whichever syllable the accent is in the 2nd sing, that syllable retains it throughout. Those verbs preceded by a hyphen are only used in composition, and examples of them compounded with prepositions are given below. All those verbs marked with F are perfective and their presents always have future meaning, cf. § 101:

§ 88.	CLASS I.
Examples of presents:	
(Inf. мочь)	(Inf. идти́ <sup>1</sup> )
$mor\acute{y} = I can$	ид $\dot{y} = I$ am going (sc. on foot)
можешь	идёшь
можеть	идёть
можемъ	ндёмъ
можете	идёте
мо́гуть	иду́ть
(Inf. тяну́ть)	(Inf. брать)
тян $ y = I am pulling$	$\operatorname{dep} olimits_{\widehat{I}} = I \ \mathit{take}, \ I \ \mathit{am} \ \mathit{taking}$
тя́нешь	берёшь
тя́неть	берёгь
ті́немть	берёмъ
тя́нете	берёте
тя́нуть	беру́тъ
(Inf. писа́ть)	(Inf. слать)
пишý = I write, I am wr	iting $m_{\pi 0}^2 = I$ am sending
númemr	шлёшь
пи́шеть	шлёть
ийшемъ	шлёмъ
пи́шете	шлёте
námyta	пілють

Also spelt итти.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the case of this verb the palatal quality of the personal endings has affected the c of the stem through the z.

(Inf. дѣла́ть)	(Inf. пить)
д	пью = $I$ drink, $I$ am drinking
дъ́лаешь	пьёшь
дъ́лаеть	пьёть
дълаемъ	пьёмъ
дъ́лаете	пьёте
дълають	пьють

Thus are conjugated the presents of the following verbs and others:

Pr	esent.	I	nfinitive.
-6 <b>+</b>			
гребу́	гребёшь	грести	row
скреб <b>у́</b>	скребёшь	скрести	scrape
-шибу́ <sup>1</sup> ,	-шибёшь F	-шибить	(hit)
•B+			
реву́	ревёшь	ревѣть	roar
живу́	живёшь	чтиж	live
зову́	зовёшь	звать	call
рву́	рвёшь	рвать	tear
плыву́	плывёшь	плыть	float
слыву́	слывёшь	слыть	be renowned as
-r+	$[\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{r} + (\mathbf{j})\mathbf{e}]$		
берегу́	бережёшь	бере́чь	keep
стерегу́	стережёшь	стере́чь	guard
жгу	жжёшь²	<b>дрөж</b>	burn (trans.)
стригу́	стрижёшь	стричь	shear
лгу	лжёшь	лгать	prevaricate
morý	можешь	мочь	be able
бѣгу́ (cf. § 89)		бъжать	run
ля́гу	ляжешь Г	лечь	lie down
-прягу́ <sup>3</sup>	•пряжёшь <b>F</b>	-прячь	(harness)
д+			
кладу́	кладёшь	класть	put
паду́	падёшь <b>F</b>	пасть	fall

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  e.g. ушибить = to bruise.  $^{3}$  e.g. запричь = to harness.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Or жгёшь.

$P_{i'}$	esent.	In	finitive.
краду	крадёшь	красть	steal .
веду́	ведёшь	вести	lead
бреду́	бредёшь	брести	wander
жду	ждёшь	ждать	(a)wait
иду	идёшь	идти	go (sc. on foot)
бу́ду	бу́дешь	быть	be
блюду́	блюдёшь	блюсти	watch
ъ́ду (сf. § 89)	биешь	Тхать	ride, drive
пряду́	прядёшь	прясть	spin
ся́ду	<b>с</b> я́дешь <b>F</b>	свсть	sit down
ж+			
$(=r, \pi, 3+-ju)$	(=r,д,з+-je-)		
-кажý <sup>1</sup>	-кажешь <b>F</b>	-каза́ть	(show)
мажу	мажешь	ма́зать	smear
бры́зжу 2	брызжешь	брызгать	splash
лижу́	лижешь	лиза́ть	lick
гложу́	тложешь	тлодать	gnaw
ржу	ржёшь	ржать	neigh
ръжу	ръжешь	рѣ́зать	<b>c</b> rut
вяжу́	вя́жещь	вяза́ть	bind, knit
<b>3</b> +			
везу́	везёшь	везти	convey
ползу	ползёщь	ползти	crawl
грызу́	трызёшь	грызть	gnaw
лвзу	лъ́зешь	лъзть	clamber
<b>K</b> +	$(\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{k} + (\mathbf{j})\mathbf{e})$		
влеку́	влечёшь	влечь	draw
пеку́	печёшь	печь	bake
теку́	течёшь	течь	flow
толку	толчёшь	толо́чь	knock
волоку́ <sup>8</sup>	волочёнь	аго̀ков	drag
TRY	Tučinia.	ткать	10eave
ську	сѣчёшь	сѣчь	cut, flog

<sup>1</sup> e.g. сказа́ть = to say, показа́ть = to show, but the reflexive каза́ться = to seem is used in the simple form.

2 Also бры́згаю, &c.

3 Also волочу́, воло́чишь, волочи́ть (class II).

4 Ог ткёшь.

Pr	esent.	1	nfinitive.
M +			
жму	жмёшь	жать	squeeze
-ниму́ <sup>1</sup>	-нимешь Г	-нять )	
-иму́ <sup>2</sup>	-и́мень F 5	-4116	(take)
-ьмý <sup>3</sup>	-ьмёшь Г	-str )	
H+			40 설립한 생생님이 되었다.
стану	ста́нешь Г	стать	become, begin(intrans.)
гну	гнёшь	гнуть	bend
жну	жнёшь	жать	reap
мну	мнёшь	мять	crush
стону	сто́нешь	стона́ть <sup>4</sup>	groan
-HHY 5	-пнёшь F	-пять	(stretch)
-чну 6	-чнёшь F	-Tap-	(begin)
дѣ́ну	дъ́нешь F	дъть	put
кляну́	клянёшь	клясть	curse
тяну́	тя́нешь	тяну́ть	pull
Verbs conr	oting a gradual	process:	
мёрзну	мёрзнешь	мёрзнуть	be frozen
мо́кну	мокнешь	мокнуть	be soaked
гасну	гаснешь	гаснуть	die down
ки́сну	ки́снешь	ки́снуть	grow sour
тихну	тихнешь	тихнуть	grow quiet
со́хну	сохнешь	со́хнуть	grow dry
тону́	то́нешь	тонуть	drown (intrans.)
стыну	стынешь	сты́нуть	grow cold
Verbs com	noting a single ac	ction:	
двину	дви́нешь F	двинуть	move (trans.)
кину	ки́нешь <b>F</b>	ки́нуть	throw
крикну	крикнешь <b>F</b>	крикнуть	cry out
тро́ну	тро́нешь Г	тро́нуть	touch
пепну	шепнёшь <b>F</b>	шепнуть	whisper
and the state of t			그 생생님이 그렇게 하는 것이 되었다.

<sup>1</sup> e.g. обниму, обнимень, обнить = to embrace. сниму, снимень, снять = to take off, to photograph.
2 e.g. приму, примень, принять = to accept.
3 e.g. возьму, возьмень, взять = to take.
4 Also has present стонаю, стонаень.
5 е.g. распять = to crucify.
6 e.g. начять = to begin (trans.).

Pr	esent.		Infinitive.
p +			
вру	врёшь	врать	prevaricate
бер <b>ў</b>	берёшь	брать	take
деру́	дерёшь	драть	tear
жру́	жрёшь	жрать	devour
-мру <sup>1</sup>	-мрёшь Г	-мере́ть	(die)
-npy 2	-прёшь F	-пере́ть	(press)
тру	трёшь	тере́ть	rub
-crpy 8	-стрёшь Г	-стере́ть	(stretch)
c+			
пасу́	пасёшь	пасти	pasture
несу́	несёшь	нести	carry
трясу́	трясёшь	трясти	shake (trans.)
r+			
плету́	плетёшь	плести	plait
мету́	метёшь	мести	sweep
гнету́	гнетёшь	гнести	press, oppress
расту́ <sup>4</sup>	растёшь	расти	grow (intrans.)
-Try 5	-чтёнь F	-честь	(read)
цвѣту́	ашётавд	цвѣсти́	blossom
-рѣту́ <sup>6</sup>	-рѣтёшь Г	-рѣсти́	(obtain)
$\mathbf{u} + (= \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{t} + -\mathbf{j}u$	$)  (= \kappa, \tau + -je -)$		
пла́чу	плачещь	пла́кать	weep
мечу́	ме́чешь	метать	fling
хочý (cf. § 89)	хо́чешь	хотѣ́ть	wish
хохочу́	хохо́чешь	хохотать	laugh loud
шепчу́	ше́пчешь	шепта́ть	whisper
топчý	то́пчешь	топтать	tread (trans.)
пря́чу	ашэгкүп	пря́тать	hide (trans.)
m + (=c, x + ju	(=c, x+-je-)		
mamý <sup>7</sup>	ма́шещь	маха́ть	wave
пашу́ .	па́щешь	паха́ть	plough
чешу́ <sup>8</sup>	че́щешь	чесать	comb

e.g. умереть = to die.

c.g. простереть = to extend.

d. Also spelt processes = to read through.

Also has маха́ю, маха́ешь.

c.g. прочесть = to read through.

d. Cf. the impersonal reflexive че́шется = it itches. e.g. запереть = to close.
Also spelt росту, ростёть, &с.
e.g. пріобръсти = to obtain.

Pre	sent.	Infi	ritive.
nmuý	пи́шещь	ппеать	write
пляшў	илиешь	плнеать	dance
$\mathbf{u} + (= \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x} + -j\mathbf{u})$ and $\mathbf{r} + -j\mathbf{u}$	$(= c\kappa + -je - and \tau + -je -)$		
трепещу	трепещешь	трепетать	tremble
ищу́	ищещь	искать	look for
ропщу	ропщешь	роптать	murmur
л+			
л <del>т</del> коле́блю	колеблешь	колебать	rock
мелю́ (cf. § 89)	мелень	молоть	grind (corn)
стелю́	сте́лешь	стлать	spread
внемлю 1	внемлещь	внимать	heed
дремлю	дремлешь	дремать	slumber
колю́	колешь	колоть	pierce
иолю	полешь	полоть	rake
сындю	сынлешь	сынать	scatter
илю (cf. p. 150)	шлёшь	слать	send
mino (er. p. 150)	шлешь	CAAIB	senu
p+			
борю́сь (cf. § 100)		боро́ться	struggle
порю́	порешь	поро́ть	unstitch
a+			
даю́	даёшь	дава́ть	give
ла́ю	ла́ешь	ла́ять	bark
л'ялаю	дълаешь	дѣлать	do, make
знаю	знаени	знать	know
-знаю́ <sup>2</sup>	-знаёшь	-знавать	(recognize)
пграю	нгра́ешь	играть	play
Táio	та́ешь	та́ять	than melt
читаю	чита́ешь	чита́ть	read
-craió ³	-стаёшь	-ставать	(become)
-луча́ю <sup>4</sup>	-луча́ешь	-луча́ть	(receive)
		many others.	

<sup>1</sup> Also has present внимаю, &c.
2 e.g. узнавать = to recognize.
3 e.g. уставать = to grow tired, and numerous other compounds.
4 e.g. получать = to receive.

1	Present.	Infi	nitive.
i+			
тнію	гніёшь	гиить	rot
вопію	вопіёшь	Bouiátь <sup>1</sup>	wail
0 +			
вою	во́ешь	выть	howl
мою	мо́ешь	мыть	wash (trans.)
HÓIO	но́ешь	ныть	ache
пою	поёшь	пѣть	sing
ро́ю	ро́ешь	рыть	dig
κρόιο	кро́ешь	крыть	cover
y+			
торгую	торгу́ешь	торговать	trade
жую́	жуёшь	жевать	chew
кую́	куёшь	ковать	forge
сную́	снуёщь	сновать	weave
<b>c</b> ýio	су́ешь	совать	poke
сов'ятую	совътуешь	совѣтовать	advise
танцу́ю	танцу́ешь	танцовать	dance
чую	чу́ешь	чу́ять	scent
ночую	ночу́ешь	ночевать	pass the night
потчую	потчуешь	потчевать	treat
	infinitive usually	ends in -ировать	
апплоди́рую	апплодируешь	апплодировать	applaud
формирую	формиру́ешь	формировать	form
ь+			
бью	бъёшь	бить	hit
BP10	вьёшь	вить	wind
лью	льёщь	лить	pour
		пить	drink
пью	пешь	******	
<b>ш</b> гио прю	шьёшь пьешь	шить	sew
штею			

 <sup>1</sup> Has alternative form воилю, воиннь, воинть (class II).
 2 надъюсь, надъешься, надънъся = to hope.

Present.		Infinitive	•
бълво	бълвещь	бѣлѣ́ть	show white
имъю	имъ́ешь	пиѣть	have, possess
сито	смѣешь	смѣть	dare
смъюсь (cf. § 100)	смѣёшься	смѣя́ться	laugh
vařio Odřav	умѣешь	умъ́ть	know how to
енъ́ю 1 .	спъ́ешь	спѣть	ripen
старѣ́ю	старъ́ешь	старъ́ть	grow old
брѣю <sup>2</sup>	брѣ́ешь	брить	shave
rpѣю	грѣ́ешь	грѣть	warm
aptio s	<b>з</b> рѣ́ешь	зрѣть	ripen
сѣ́ю	сѣешь	свять -	sow
-тью <sup>4</sup>	-тъ́ешь F	-тѐять	(plan)
ro +			
блюю́	блюёшь	блева́ть	vomit
клюю́	клюёшь	клевать	peck
плюю́	плюёшь	плевать	spit
вою́ю	вою́ешь	воевать	make war
ropióio	горю́ешь	горева́ть	mourn
<b>я+</b>			
ваяю	вая́ешь	ва́ять	sculpt
гуляю	гуля́ещь	гуля́ть	walk
-виняюсь <sup>5</sup> (сf. § 100)	-виня́ешься	-виня́ться	(excuse)
` ,			and the second second

### CLASS II.

(Inf. любить)	(Inf. ви́дѣть)
люблю́ = I love	ви́жу $= I$ see
любишь	ви́дишь
любить	ви́дить
любимъ	ви́димъ
любите	ви́дите
любять	ви́дять

Not to be confused with спою, спёть a compound of пёть.
 Also spelt брею, &c.
 Not to be confused with эрю, эрёть (class II) = to see.
 затёю, &c. = to plan, contrive.
 извиниться = to excuse oneself.

(Inf. лежа́ть)	(Inf. спать)
лежý = I lie, am lying	CHIO = I sleep, am sleeping
лежи́шь	спишь
лежи́ть	спить
лежимъ	спимъ
лежите	спи́те
лежать	спять
(Inf. говори́ть)	(Inf. плати́ть)
$ ext{roвopio} = egin{cases} Ispeak, am speaking \ Isay, am saying \end{cases}$	плачу́ = І рау
говори́шь	пла́тишь 1
говоритъ	платить 1
говоримъ	пла́тимъ <sup>1</sup>
говори́те	пла́тите <sup>1</sup>
говоря́ть	пла́тять 1
(Inf. yqútь)	(Inf. слышать)
$y$ ч $\acute{y} = I teach$	слышу $= I hear$
у́чишь	слышишь
ýчить	слыщить
ўчимъ	слешиме
у́чите	слышите
ýчать	слышать

Thus are conjugated the presents of the following verbs and others:

Pre	sent.	Inf	initive.	
б+				
люблю́	любишь	любить	love	
в+				
ловию	ло́вишь	ловить	catch	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The accented a in all these five persons is usually pronounced like accented o in the case of this verb.

Pres	sent.	Infinitive.		
(r+becomes ж) (π+becomes ж in 1st pers. sing.)	л+			
	ла́дишь	ла́дить	agree	
	гла́дишь	гла́дить	stroke	
вижу	ви́дишь	видъть	see	
сижу́	сидишь	сидъ́ть	sit	
вожу́	водищь	води́ть	lead	
хожу́	хо́дишь	ходи́ть	go (sc. on foot)	
гожу́сь (cf. § 100)	годишься	годи́ться	be of use	
	гординься	гордиться	be proud	
гляжу́	глядищь	ата̀дки	look	
x + (= r +)				
лежу́	лежи́шь	лежа́ть	lie	
дрожу́	дрожищь	дрожать	tremble	
держý	де́ржищь	держать	keep, hold	
	бѣжищь (cf. §89		run	
(3+becomes me in 1st pers.				
sing.)	3+		.77	
лажу	лазишь	лазить	clamber	
вожý	возишь	возить	convey	
к + becomes ч) л +				
велю́	велищь	вельть	command	
боли́ть	боля́ть (imper- sonal)	болѣть	ache	
молю́сь (cf. § 100	) мо́лишься	моли́ться	pray	
<b>м</b> +				
шумлю́	шуми́шь	шумъ́ть	make a noise	
B- <del> -</del>				
виню́	вини́шь	вини́ть	blame	
гоню́	гонишь	гнать	chase	
п+				
сплю	спишь	спать	slee $p$	
терплю́	те́рпишь	териѣть	endure	
тороплюсь (cf. § 100)	торо́пишься	торопиться	hurry	

Pre	sent.	Infinitive.		
<b>p+</b>			*	
говорю́	говори́шь	говори́ть	speak, say	
ropió	гори́шь	горѣть	burn (intrans.)	
смотрю	смотришь	<b>с</b> мотрѣ́ть	look (at)	
курю́	ку́ришь	кури́ть	smoke	
(c+becomes m				
in 1st pers.				
sing.)	c+			
крашу	красишь	красить	paint (sc. walls)	
вишу́	висишь	висѣть	hang (intrans.)	
ношу́	носищь	носить	wear, carry	
(T+becomes 4				
or m in 1st pers. sing.)	T+			
	пла́типь <b>1</b>	плати́ть	$p\alpha y$	
плачý лечý	летинь	natati netěte	fly	
	вертишь	вертъть	turn, twist	
верч <b>ў</b> блещ <b>ў</b>	блестищь	блестѣть	shine	
олещу	хоти́мъ, &c. (cf.		wish	
	§ 89)	AUIBIB	W1816	
пущу́	пустишь F	пустить	allow, let go	
-сѣщу́ <sup>2</sup>	-сѣти́шь <b>F</b>	-сътить	(visit)	
(x + becomes m) x + (= x +)				
кричу́	кричи́шь	крича́ть	shout	
молч <b>ý</b>	молчинь	молчать	be silent	
учý <sup>з</sup>	ўчишь	учи́ть	teach	
m+(=x+)				
слышу	елышишь	слышать	hear	
	and very	many others.		
0+				
бою́сь (cf. § 100)	бойщься	боя́ться	fear	
стою	сто́ишь	сто́ить	cost, be worth	
CTOIÓ	стойшь	стоять	stand	
마리레직사 바르는 시간			성격 경찰하다 보기 생활.	

<sup>N.B. The a in all the persons of the present of this verb except the 1st sing. is usually pronounced like accented o.
посётить = to visit.
The reflexive учиться = to learn.</sup> 

### § 89.

### Irregular Verbs.

These are not really irregular at all, but merely the remains of an old conjugation.

3rd sing. ecrs = 
$$is$$
 3rd plur. cyrs =  $are$ 

are all that is left of the present of the verb  $\texttt{GHTb} = to \ be \ (\texttt{cf.} \S\S 81, 112).$ 

## 

			(Inf. ѣсть)			
	(1	тмъ			(1	<b>Б</b> ди́мъ
Sing.	2	<b>а</b> ша		Plur.	2	<b>ѣ</b> ди́те
	(3	ъсть			(3	<b>В</b> дя́ть

N.B. For the 2nd sing. and plur. кушать is more often used.

# дамъ = I shall give

	***	(1nf. дать)			
(1	дамъ			(1	дадимъ
Sing. 2	дашь		Plur.	2	дадите
	дасть			(3	дадуть

[въмъ = I know, obsolete except in the phrase Богъ въстъ = God knows, still sometimes used; a part, the imperative sing., still survives in the very common conjunction въдъ = for, equivalent to the French donc or mais voyons.]

The following two verbs are partly irregular, and as they are very common deserve special attention:

б $\S$ r $\circ$ = $I$ а	хоч $\circ = I$ want, wish	
(Inf. 64	жа́ть)	(Inf. хотъ́ть)
Sing. $\begin{cases} 1\\2\\3 \end{cases}$	бѣгу́ бѣжи́шь бѣжи́ть	хочý хо́чень хо́четь
Plur. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$	ь вийжёд Вийжёд Виўты	хоти́мь хоти́те хотя́ть

The very common present

Sing.  $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{fay} = I \text{ am going (sc. on horseback or in} \\ 2 & \text{faemb} & \text{any form of conveyance but} \\ 3 & \text{faerb} & \text{not on foot)} \end{cases}$  Plur.  $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{faemb} \\ 2 & \text{faere} \\ 3 & \text{fayrb} \end{cases}$ 

has an infinitive ъ́хать.

моло́ть  $= to \ grind$ , pres. мело́, ме́лешь, may also be classed as irregular.

# § 90. The Past.

As mentioned on p. 146 the past in Russian is a tense only in name. In reality it is a past participle active which formerly was used with the help of the present of the verb быть = to be, as a compound perfect tense like the German ich bin gewesen. When this present became obsolete the past participle came to be used alone as the past tense and is now not felt to be a participle at all. It is formed from the infinitive, the general rule being to cut off the last two letters (-ть от -тн) and substitute:

-жь for the masc. sing. -жа ,, fem. sing. -жо ,, neut. sing. and -жи ,, masc. fem. and neut. plur. all three persons.

In the singular it must always agree in gender with the subject of the sentence, whatever person it be, except, of course, that the neuter sing. in -mo is only used for the 3rd pers. sing.

The personal pronouns must be prefixed as required, e. g. я, ты, онь, онь, оно for the sing., according to gender, and мы, вы, оно, онь for the plur., but they are often omitted.

There is absolutely no difficulty in forming the past from any verb the infinitive of which ends in

-ать, -ять, -йть, -ить, ог -оть.

This includes all the verbs in class II and most of those in class I. The only difficulty is in the accent. This sometimes falls on the ending and sometimes not; it is best learnt by observation and practice.

Examples are given of the pasts of verbs in class II, and of those of class I whose infinitives end as indicated above:

1,	2, 3 Sing.	1, 2, 3 Plur.	Inf.
M. F. N.	зналь знала знало	зна́ли	знать = know
M. F. N.		смѣя́лись	смѣ́я́тьея = laugh
M. F. N.	ви́дѣлъ ви́дѣла ви́дѣло	ви́дѣли	ви́дЪть = see
M. F. N.	мыль мыла ощим	мили	meth = wash (trans.)
M. F. N.	пиль пила́ пи́ло	ийли	пить = drink
M. F. N.	боро́лся боро́лась боро́лось	боро́лись	боро́ться = struggle

In the case of the verbs of class I, all those of which the infinitive ends in -ath, -ath, -bth, or -uth are formed in exactly the same way as those just mentioned, e.g. ctale, ctale, ctale, ctale, ctale, ctale, ctale, chile, chile,

One reason is that the infinitive sometimes disguises the end of the stem, and it is to the stem (ending in a consonant) that the endings of the past have to be added, and another is that some of the stems undergo phonetic changes when followed by the -xb of the past. The stem can always be found in the 2nd sing. of the present by cutting off the personal endings -elib or -helib.

Stems ending in -c, -3, -k, -r, -6, -p lose the -ML of the masculine singular past (those in -p being formed from the infinitive stem. e.g. from rep- and not from rp-), e.g.

M.	нёсъ )		
F.	несла -	несли	нест $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{carry}$
N.	несло )		
M.	вёзъ у		
F.	везла -	везлії	везти́ = convey
N.	везло )		
M.	тёкъ \		
F.	текла -	текли	Teqb = flow
N.	текло )		
M.	MOPL		
F.	могла	могли	мочь $=$ be able
N.	могло )		
M.	грёбъ )		
F.	гребла́ }	греблії	грести́ = 1010
N.	гребло́)		
M.	тёръ 🔪		
F.	тёрла	тёрлп	rерé $r$ ь = $rub$
N.	тёрло )		

Stems ending in  $-\pi$ ,  $-\pi$  lose these consonants before all the endings beginning with  $\pi$ , e.g.

M.	вёлъ			
F.	вела	вели	вести = $lead$	
N.	вело́	lan 나는 그 가족을 하는 것도		
M.	мёлъ			
F.	мела	мели	мести́ = swee	p
N	моло			

Of the verbs whose infinitives end in -nyth, the majority form their past in the ordinary way, e.g. 1

M.	тро́нулъ	1				
	тронула		тронули	тронуть	= touc	h
	тронуло					

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> N.B. двинуть when compounded with the preposition, воз-, inserts again the r of its stem, viz. воздвитнуть = to erect, the past of which is воздвить, воздвитла, &c.; but not when compounded with other prepositions. Исчезнуть = to disappear has both исчезь and исчезнуть.

but those verbs of this class which have so-called inchoative meaning, i.e. denote a process of any sort, lose the syllable-ny-and add the terminations direct to the real stem (after stems ending in -x, -c, -k, -3 the -m falls off), e.g.<sup>1</sup>

	Sing.	Plur.	Inf.
M. F. N.	сохъ со́хла со́хло	со́хли	со́хнуть = become dry
M. F. N.	кись ки́сла ки́сло	ки́сли	ки́снуть $= grow sour$
M. F. N.	мокъ мо́кла мо́кло	мо́кли	мо́кнуть = $grow$ wet
M. F. N.	стылъ стыла стыло	сты́ли	сты́нуть = grow cold

The pasts of the following verbs of class I must be mentioned individually, being somewhat unexpected; to them are added those of the irregular verbs:

Sing.	Plur.	Inf.
-чёль -чла́ -чло́	-чли	-честь = (read)
сѣлъ сѣла сѣло	} chan	ckeть = sit down

¹ ги́бнуть = to perish, has an alternative form ги́нуть; the past of the first is either гибъ, ги́бла, or ги́бнуть, &c., that of the second ги́нуть, &c., and in compounds, e.g. поги́бнуть, only поги́бъ, поги́бла, &c. Several other verbs of this category have both forms of past, but all have the shorter form as given above.

# THE VERB

Sing.		Plur.		Inf.
M. рось F. росла́		росли	раст $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = grow$	
N. росло́)				
М. кляль)				
F. кляла́ N. кляло́		кля́ли	кляст	s = eurse
М. лёгь				
F. легла		легли	лечь=	= lie down
N. легло́)				
М. жёгь				
<b>Г</b> . жгла		жгли	чьэж	= burn (trans.)
N. жило <sup>3</sup>				
Мшибъ Fшибла		-шаблы	******	· /7. :4\
Nшибло		-mnomi	-шпбить $= (hit)$	
М. фль				
F. Éra		ncă	Бсть = eat	
N. Бло				
М. даль)				
F. дала		дали	дать :	= give
N. дало				
Notice especially M. mens				
F. шла		PILIP	$\mathbf{n}$ д $\mathbf{r}$ и́ = $g\mathbf{o}$	
N. шло				
хотъ́ть l	has	aràtoz	хотъ́ла	хотъ́ло
			хотъ́ли	
бѣжа́ть	27	бъжаль	бъжала	бѣжа́ло
			бѣжа́ли	
<b>ѣ</b> хать	**	бхаль	<b>ѣ́хала</b>	т́хало
			ъ́хали	
быть	27	быль	была	бы́ло
	"		были	
мслоть		моло́ль	молола	моло́ло
MCMUIB	57	PEONIONER	γ	THE OPTION OF
			иколом	

### The Future.

The future in form is exactly the same as the present, and has no special endings of its own. It is a peculiarity of Russian that the present tenses of all the so-called perfective verbs have future meaning. This will be explained amply in §§ 101, 104.

The future can also be formed by using the form 65/3, 65/3, 65/3 and 16/3 be, thou wilt be, &c. (of the verb 66/3 be), together with the infinitive of any of the so-called imperfective verbs. The difference in meaning between these two forms of the future will be explained in § 104.

### ₹ 92.

### The Conditional.

This is formed by adding the particle бы (often contracted to бъ) to the past of any verb.

This particle is really a part of the verb 6hth = to be, which originally possessed a complete conditional tense, long since quite obsolete. This particle 6h can be placed before or after the verb, the only rule being that as it is an enclitic it cannot begin a sentence, and therefore if placed before the verb the personal pronoun which is otherwise often omitted must be used. In meaning the conditional can be either past or future, according to the context.

## Example:

хотыть-бы = I should have liked or I should like (inf. хотыть = to wish).

The particle can either follow the verb thus:

	Sing.	Plur.
M.	хотъ́лъ-бы ү	
F.	хотъ́ла-бы	ыд-икатох
N.	хоть́ло-бы	

all of which forms can of course be preceded by the requisite personal pronouns; or it can precede it, in which case the personal pronouns are essential:

	Sing.	Plur.
	( я бы хотъ́лъ мы	
M.	ты бы хотыль вы	бы хоты́ли
	онь бы хотык они	

	Sing.		Plur.
	( я бы хоты́а	мы \	
F.	ты бы хотѣла	вы	бы хоты́ли
	она бы хотвла	oné)	
N.	оно́ бы хотѣ́ло	они́	бы хоты́ли

§ 93.

The Imperative.

The endings of the imperative are:

The endings -m, -me are added to the present stems of all those verbs in class I which end in a consonant and have the accent on the ending of the 1st sing. of the present, e.g.

If the accent is not on the ending of the 1st sing., then -b, -bre are added, e.g.

. 20 - 2

If, however, the present stem ends in two consonants, then, although the accent be on the root, the endings -n, -nre are added, e.g.

кри́кну кри́кни  $\left. \begin{array}{cc} \text{кри́кни} \\ \text{кри́кните} \end{array} \right\} shout !$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The very common reflexive береги́сь, береги́тесь = take care!

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  But N.B. сы́ндю, сынь, сы́ньте = scatter! and внемлю, внемли́, внемли́те = h ed!

The endings -u, -ure are added to all those present stems which end in a vowel, wherever the accent be, and as a diphthong is formed, the u appears as ü, e.g.

ді, the и арреатs as и, е. g. 
$$\frac{\text{ді́дай}}{\text{ді́дайте}} = do! \qquad \qquad \frac{\text{пой}}{\text{пойте}} = sing!$$
 крой 
$$\text{крой } \text{кройте} = cover! \qquad \qquad \text{дай } \text{ді́дте} = give!$$
 
$$\frac{\text{сов'і́туйте}}{\text{сов'і́туйте}} = advise!$$
 tice that the imperatives of the five verbs бить,

Notice that the imperatives of the five verbs бить, вить, лить, пить, and шить are somewhat different, viz.:

бей бейте 
$$\left. egin{array}{ll} \mbox{6ейте} \mbox{ } = hit! \mbox{ } \mbo$$

Similarly the verbs of class II take one or the other pair of endings according to where the accent is on the 1st sing. of the present. In the case of these verbs it is important to remember that the stem is to be found in the 2nd sing. of the present, and not always in the 1st, e.g.

The following imperatives are irregular:

from ля́гу ля́жешь, inf. лечь

from the thin, inf. teth (kýman(te) = partake! is more often used)

from ѣду ѣдешь, inf. ѣхать

N.B. An anomalous 1st plur. of the imperative is often formed colloquially by adding the ending -re on to the 1st plur. of the present, e.g.

(по) идёмте = let us go!
поговори́мте = let's have a little chat!

though as a rule the 1st plur. of the present is used alone to express let us.

The 3rd sing. and 3rd plur. of the imperative is expressed by using the word пускай (= 2nd sing. imperat. from пускать = to let) or пусть (= 2nd sing. imperat. from пустать = to let), followed by the perfective present, e.g.

пускай придёть = let him come пускай стоять = let them stand пусть скажеть = let him tell.

For the use of the imperative in conditional clauses cf. § 106.

## § 94. The Infinitive.

The infinitive ends in -ть, -чь, -ти, or -чи, preceded by various vowels and consonants; when the accent rests on the infinitive ending itself (which it does in a small minority of all the Russian verbs) then the ending is -ти (-чи), otherwise it is -ть (-чь).

As examples of all possible varieties of infinitives have been given in § 87, it is unnecessary to repeat them here.

## § 95. The Gerund.

The present gerund is in most cases formed from the third person plural of the present by cutting off the last three letters, viz. -2075, -3775, or -3775 and adding -3, e.g.

неся́ = carrying from несу́ть чита́я = reading " чита́ють говора́ = speaking " говора́ть си́дя = sitting " сид́ять сто́я = standing " сто́ять гла́дя = looking " глада́ть.

The following are formed somewhat irregularly:

давая = giving from дають
-знавая = recognizing ,, -знають
-ставая = standing ,, -стають.

N.B. The present gerund from xoráth = they wish has acquired the meaning although and is almost always used as a conjunction in this sense.

When the 3rd plural of the present ends in -yrs or -ars preceded by m, u, m, or m then the present gerund ends not in -a, but in -a, e.g.

пла́ча = weeping from пла́чуть міма́ = seeking ,, и́щуть мілча = being silent¹ ,, молча́ть лёжа = lying down ,, лежа́ть

There is another form of the present gerund which is formed by cutting off the last two letters of the 3rd pl. present (-TL) and adding -W. This form is very commonly used by the peasants and in popular poetry, but in literature only a few verbs have it; from the verb 6LTL = to be, it is, however, the only form of the gerund ever used, viz.:

бу́дучи, from бу́дуть.

The past gerund is formed from the masc. sing. of the past 'tense' by cutting off -ль and adding -вь or -вши, e.g.

бывь from быль чита́вь ог чита́вни , вль.

Those pasts which lose the -m in the masc. sing. add -mm, e.g.

лёгши from лёгь нёсши " нёсь.

Those pasts in which a final -д, -т of the stem has fallen out before the -дъ in the masc. sing. replace the dental and add -ши, e.g.

ве́дши from вёль (inf. вести́).

Notice especially:

ше́дши from шёль (inf. итти́).

<sup>1</sup> Used abverbially = in silence.

### § 96.

### The Participles.

The present participle active is formed, like the present gerund, from the 3rd plural of the present tense by cutting off the last two letters -rs and adding -щій, -щая, -щее, which word is then declined exactly like хоро́шій, хоро́шая, хоро́шее, q. v.

E. g. from любять (inf. любять), pres. part. act. любящій = loving from ведуть (inf. вести́), pres. part. ведущій = leading (sc. to)

from зна́ють (inf. знать), pres. part. зна́ющій = knowing (sc. who knows).

It must be noticed that the participle, present in form, of the verb  $6\dot{\gamma}$ Ay = I shall be, viz.  $6\dot{\gamma}$ Aymiñ, has imperfective future meaning, and commonly means next, or the next; the neuter  $6\dot{\gamma}$ Aymee is used substantivally = the future.

§ 97. The past participle active is formed, like the past gerund, from the masc sing. of the past 'tense', by cutting off -TB and adding -BIHISH, -BIHISH, -BIHISH, Which word is then declined exactly like xopómis.

E. g. from люби́ль (inf. люби́ль), past part. люби́вній, &c. = having loved

from ьть (inf. ьсть), past part. ьвинй, &c. = having eaten

from быль (inf. быль), past part. бывшій which is always used to express former or late (though, N.B., not the late, which is покойный). Those pasts which lose the -ль in the masc. sing. add -шій, -шая, -шее.

E.g. from ýмерь (inf. умере́ть), past part. уме́ршій, &c. = having died, dead.

Those parts in which a final - $\pi$ , - $\pi$  of the stem has fallen out before the - $\pi$ s in the masc sing, replace the dental and add - $\pi$ iñ, &c.

E. g. from вёль (inf. вести́), past part. ве́дшій, &c. = having led from шёль (inf. итти́), past part. ше́дшій, &c. = having gone from паль (inf. пасть) there are two forms: па́дшій and па́вшій = having fallen.

§ 98. The present participle passive is formed from the 1st plur. of the present tense, the final -мъ of which is turned into -мый, -мая, -мое, the word thus formed being declined like бе́лый; е.g. from чита́емъ (inf. чита́ть), pres. part. pass. чита́емый, &с.; from ви́димъ (inf. ви́де́ть), pres. part. pass. ви́димый, &с.; from лю́бимъ (inf. люби́ть), pres. part. pass. люби́мый, &с. (= favourite).

A few verbs of class I with stems ending in consonants form the present participle passive irregularly in -omain, &c.

E. g. from несёмъ (inf. нести́), pres. part. pass. несо́мый, &c. from ведёмъ (inf. вести́), pres. part. pass. ведо́мый, &c. from мека́ть = to seek, pres. part. pass. неко́мый, &c.

§ 99. The past participle passive is formed from the infinitive in two different ways. One is by cutting off the -ть of the infinitive and adding -нь, -на, -но for the short or predicative and -(н)ный, -(н)ная, -(н)ное for the long or attributive form, which word is then declined like бълый.

E. g. from сдёлать = to make
past part. pass. сдёлань, -на, -но; -ны; сдёланный, &с.
from потерять = to lose

past part. pass. поте́рянъ, -на, -но; -ны; поте́рянный, &с.

from дать = to give

past part. pass. данъ, дана́, дана́; даны́; данный, &с.

from осмотръть = to inspect

past part. pass. осмотрънъ, -на, -но; -ны; осмотрънный, &с.

Verbs of Class II with inf. in -nth form the past part. pass. as follows:

from обвинить = to accuse

past part. pass. обвинёнъ, -на́, -на́; -ны́; обвинённый, &с.

from ужа́лить = to sting

past part. pass. ужа́ленъ, -на, -но; -ны; ужа́ленный

from páнить = to wound

past part. pass. ра́ненъ, -на, -но; -ны; ра́неный

from учить = to teach

past part. pass. (short form not used) үчёный (= learned, a savant).

The past participle passive of those verbs of class II, the 1st person sing. of the present of which is affected by the following palatal vowel (cf. § 87), is formed from the 1st person sing. of the present in the following way:

from заплати́ть = to pay

1st sing. pres. заплачу́ (т+ю = чу)

past part. pass. заплаченный (pronounced заплоченный)

from cagirts = to set, plant

1st sing. pres.  $camý (\pi + 10 = my)$ 

past part. pass. саженный

from exocuts = to more

1st sing. pres. ckomý (c+10 = my)

past part. pass. скошенный

from kynáte = to buy

1st sing. pres. куплю́

past part. pass. купленный.

Notice especially:

from обидьть = to offend

past part. pass. обиженный, &c.

A few verbs of this class which have presents in my form their past participles passive with m.

E.g. from oбратить = to turn

past part. pass. обращённый

from просвътить = to enlighten

past part. pass. просвѣщённый

from nochráth = to visit

past part. pass. посёщённый

and from otherate = to avenge oneself

past part. pass. отомщённый.

Many verbs of class I whose stems end in a consonant form their past participles passive from the second person sing., cutting off the ending -ень and adding -ёнь, &c., for the predicative, -ённый, &c., for the attributive form.

E.g. from Bectú = to lead

2nd sing. pres. ведёшь

past part. pass. ведённый

прочесть = to read through

2nd sing. pres. прочтёшь

past part. pass. прочтённый

стричь = to shear, cut (hair)

2nd sing. pres. стрижёшь

past part. pass. стриженный

жечь = to burn (trans.)

2nd sing. pres. жжёшь

past part. pass. жжённый

and others.

The other way of forming the past participle passive is by cutting off the -5 of the infinitive and adding -5, -a, -o for the short or predicative, and -11, -a, -oe for the long or attributive form. This form is by far the less common of the two.

E. g. from мыть = to wash past part. pass. мытый, &c. from бить = to hit past part. pass. from прокласть = to curse past part. pass. проклатый, &c. from past part. pass. грыть = to heat part part. pass. грытый, &c.

from тере́ть = to rub past part. pass. тёртый, &c.

from sanepére = to shut (c. g. a building)

past part. pass. запертый, &с.

Other common verbs which form their past participles passive in this way are:

 начать
 = to begin
 жать
 = to reap

 нажить
 = to earn
 мять
 = to crush

 занить
 = to occupy, to borrow
 одёть
 = to dress

 покрыть
 = to cover
 пёть
 = to sing

 жать
 = to press
 брить
 = to shave

and all verbs in -нуть,

e.g. from протянуть = to stretch forth past part. pass. протянутый, &c.

## § 100. The Reflexive Verb.

This is formed by the addition of -cs (or -cb), a reduced form of the reflexive pronoun ceóá, to all parts of the verb, as follows:

купа́ться = to bathe (imperfective and intransitive).

#### Present.

я купа́юсь
ты купа́епься
опъ, она́, оно́ купа́ется
мы купа́ется
вы купа́етсь
опи́, онъ́ купа́ются

### Past.

М. купался

Sing. F. купалась Plur. купались

N. купалось)

## Future.

буду купаться, &с.

Conditional.

Imperative. купайся купайтесь

Present Gerund.

купа́нсь

Present Participle.

купа́ющійся, &с.

Past Gerund. купа́вшись Past Participle. купа́вшійся, &с.

Ся is added whenever the part of the verb ends in a consonant or in ь or й; сь when it ends in a vowel. Ся is added in the participles throughout, whether preceded by vowel or consonant.

## § 101. The uses of the Verb.

In order to use the verb correctly it is necessary to know not only the way it is conjugated but also what aspects it possesses.

This is where the real difficulty begins. It will have been noticed that, compared with other languages, Russian possesses very few tenses in the grammatical sense of the word; this want is supplied by the aspects.

The aspects are different forms of the same verb; the same verb acquires a different meaning according to its aspect. The aspects are formed by altering the verb itself either by prefixing some preposition or by lengthening or otherwise altering the root itself; the personal endings remain unaltered and each aspect of the verb has a more or less complete set of forms, i.e. present, imperative, infinitive, &c.

There are two main divisions of the aspects of the Russian verb:

1. imperfective

and 2. perfective.

The verbs themselves are called imperfective or perfective according to the aspect in which they are used in any particular case, i.e. a verb is said to be imperfective, or is said to be used in the imperfective aspect, and every verb must necessarily belong

to one or the other division, i.e. must be either imperfective or perfective.

The difference in meaning between these two aspects is that when any one uses an imperfective verb the action described by that verb is in the mind's eye of the speaker INCOMPLETE, or, if in the past, must have been of uncertain duration.

When, on the other hand, any one uses a perfective verb, then the action is either COMPLETE or, if in the future, the speaker must have its completion in his mind's eye.

In English there is of course also variety of aspects, but it is expressed not by altering the verb itself but by the use of auxiliary verbs or adverbs; for instance, I go, I am going, I used to go, I often go, I was going are imperfective, whereas I went, I am gone, I shall go are perfective.

The majority of simple Russian verbs, i.e. those which are not compounded with any preposition, are imperfective, but from the fact that a given verb is compounded with a preposition it by no means follows that that verb is perfective. Nevertheless it is true that the commonest way of turning an imperfective into a perfective verb is by prefixing to it a preposition.

Now the curious thing is that when a preposition is used merely to make a perfective out of an imperfective verb, that preposition loses its original meaning.

Further, while there is always one preposition in particular which when prefixed to a verb both makes the verb perfective and loses its own original meaning, on the other hand, all the other prepositions when prefixed to the same verb both make it perfective and retain their original meaning, thus altering the meaning of the verb as well.

The difficulty is to know which is the particular preposition in each case which merely makes a given verb perfective, and as it is sometimes one preposition and sometimes another, the only thing for the beginner to do is to make a list of the commonest verbs and learn them by heart, putting down the simple (imperfective) verb and the form of the same verb compounded with that preposition which makes the verb perfective, while allowing the verb to retain its meaning but losing its own.

One of the prepositions most frequently used for transforming an imperfective into a perfective verb is no, which in the process

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quite loses its meaning of along or over, and merely defines the space of time during which the action takes place, e.g.

It has already been indicated that not all simple verbs are imperfective and conversely that not all verbs compounded with prepositions are perfective; these categories of verbs will be examined later.

There follow now paradigms of one or two very common verbs in couples, first the simple (imperfective) and then the compound (perfective) verb. It will be noticed that not both aspects of the same verb have an equally complete paradigm. This, as will be explained, is in the nature of things, and is invariably the case.

First the paradigms are given, then remarks on the use of the various parts of the two aspects:

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\text{д'йлать} \\
\text{сд'йлать}
\end{array}\right\} = to do, to make$$

	Imperfective.	Perfective.
present	дѣ́лаю	—— (cf. § 102)
past	дѣлалъ	сдѣлалъ
future	бу́ду дѣ́лать	сдѣлаю
conditional	дѣ́лалъ-бы	сдѣлалъ-бы
imperative	дѣ́лай	сдѣ́лай
infinitive	дѣлать	сдѣлать
pres. ger.	дъ́лая	
past ger.	дѣлавъ	сдѣлавъ
pres. part. act	. дъ́лающій	
past part. act	. дъ́лавшій	<b>с</b> дѣ́лавшій
pres. part. pa	ss. дѣ́лаемый	
past part. pas	ss. дъ́ланный	<b>с</b> дѣ́ланный

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> = съ + д'ялать.

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{писать} \\ \text{на} + \end{array}\right\} = to write$$

	Imperfective.	Perfective.
present	пишу́	—— (cf. § 102)
past	писа́ль	написаль
future	буду писать	напишу́
conditional	писаль-бы	написалъ-бы
imperative	пиши	напиши́
infinitive	писать	написать
pres. ger.	1	
past ger.	писа́въ	написа́въ
pres. part. act.	пи́шущій	
past part. act.	писа́вшій	написа́вшій
pres. part. pass	<b>.</b> — —	en e
past part. pass	писанный	написанный

### § 102. The Present (imperfective).

Russian possesses only one present, while English has two:  $\pi$  num $\circ$  = (1) I write (sc. it is my custom or profession to write) and = (2) I am writing (sc. at this moment). Both these meanings are of course imperfective; when one says  $\pi$  num $\circ$  = I write, or  $\pi$  num $\circ$  = I am writing, the speaker does not naturally envisage the termination of his activity. An example of the use of the imperfective present:

что вы д $\hat{h}$ лаете? = what are you doing? я пиш $\hat{y}$  письм $\hat{o} = I$  am writing a letter.

The imperfective present is frequently used in Russian illogically, instead of the future, as in English; e.g. in telegrams, letters, &c.:

прівзжаю за́втра = I am arriving to-morrow (прівзжа́ю is an imperfective present).

The historic present is often used in narration instead of the past.

#### Use of the Present in subordinate sentences.

The imperfective present is used in all cases where it is used in English; after verbs of *declaring*, *feeling*, &c. The subordinate sentence is always introduced by 470, e.g.

я говорю́, что онъ врёть =I say that he is lying я ду́маю, что онъ лю́бить  $e\ddot{e}=I$  think he loves her ты зна́ешь, что я теба́ люблю́ = thou knowest that I love thee.

In this connexion it should be noticed that after the verb видить the so-called paratactic construction is very common in Russian; this is especially frequent in narration. By omitting the uto it gives the impression of two principal sentences instead of a principal and a subordinate sentence, e.g.

видять — летить къ нимъ птица = they see a bird flying towards them (lit. they see — a bird is flying towards them).

Russian is much stricter in the correct expression of time, however, and the present is often used in Russian in subordinate sentences where in English we use the past although we mean the present, e.g.

I did not know that this was so = я не зналь, что это такъ (lit. I did not know that this [is] so)

he told me that he was writing a book = онъ сказаль мив, что пишеть книгу (lit. = he told me that he is writing a book)

she thought he loved her = она думала, что онъ её любить (lit. she thought he loves her)

and in these cases it would be a very bad mistake to use the past in the subordinate clause.

In conditional clauses the imperfective present is used whenever the condition refers to the actual present; the subordinate sentence is introduced by  $\acute{\text{ecm}} = if$  (sometimes by  $\acute{\text{exem}}$ ), and the antithesis in the principal sentence is often expressed by the pronoun to used adverbially, e.g.

éсли вы котите, то скажите ему = if you wish, then tell him сдвлайте это для ней, если вы её любите = do this for her if you love her.

When the condition refers to the future the perfective present (= perfective future, q.v.) is usual, though in the cases of some

verbs the imperfective present is used illogically for the future, as in English, e.g.

е́сли мо́жете, то приходи́те за́втра = if you can, then come to-morrow.

In concessive clauses the imperfective present is used as in English; the subordinate sentence is introduced by хотй = although (sometimes reduced to хоть), не смотрй на то, что = in spite of the fact that, and the antithesis in the principal sentence is expressed by но = but, однако = nevertheless, всётаки = all the same, or by the enclitic -таки = yet,

хота́ всѣ говора́ть что это пра́вда, я имъ всётаки не вѣ́рю = although all say that this is true (the truth), all the same I don't believe them.

In relative clauses—whoever, in sentences where the present is necessary, is expressed by the simple relative, e.g.

кто говорить это, врёть = whoever says this, lies.

Whoever, whatever, and however are also expressed by the relative with the negative particle ни, which however does not make the sentence negative,

что онъ ни д'ялаеть, всё ему удаётся = whatever he does, he succeeds in everything

какъ вы ни стара́етесь, вы не сумвете это сдвлать = however much you try you will not be able to do this.

If the relative sentence is negative the ordinary negative particle He is used and not HM.

кто не знаеть этого человека, тоть не можеть понять почему его такъ уважають = whoever does not know this man, cannot understand why people respect him so.

In causal clauses the imperfective present is very common; the subordinate clause is introduced by notomy, who = because or take kake = since (in letter-writing these are often abbreviated to n.t. w. and t.k.),

она́ цёлу́еть его́ по тому́, что она́ его́ лю́бить = she kisses him because she love; him

такъ какъ вы не хотите сказать мив, я спрощу́ его́ = since you do not wish to tell me, I'll ask him.

In consecutive clauses the imperfective present is used as in English; the subordinate sentence is introduced by 470, e.g.

онь такь болень, что я не могу́ его́ оста́вить = he is so ill that I cannot leave him.

In temporal clauses the subordinate sentences are introduced by когда = when (often answered by тогда = then), пока = while, между тымь какь, вь то время какь = while,

когда́ я пишу́, я не люблю́ что́бы со мной говори́ли = when I write I don't like people to talk to me

сидите со мной пока я одъваюсь = sit with me while 1 am dressing.

In comparative clauses the subordinate sentence is introduced by kake = how answered by take, or take  $\pi = thus$ 

какъ думаетъ, такъ и говори́тъ = as he thinks, thus (too) he speaks.

#### The Present (perfective).

It is one of the greatest peculiarities of the Russian verb that the formal present of every perfective verb has future meaning, so that while every perfective verb has a tense which is present in form, it is in meaning always a definite future (cf. § 104).

## § 103. The Past (imperfective).

This is the equivalent of the imperfect, and its use connotes that the action was more or less habitual or that the period of time during which it lasted is in the mind's eye of the speaker indefinite.

я писать = I was writing, or I used to write.

Examples of the use of this tense:

что вы д'ялали когда я вошёль въ комнату? = what were you doing when I entered the room?

я писаль письм $\delta = I$  was writing a letter

прежде она писала много = formerly she used to write a lot.

The use of the imperfective past in subordinate sentences is common in temporal, concessive, and comparative clauses, but presents no difficulties.

It is important to remember that in Russian the present is often used in a subordinate sentence where we use the past.

For the use of 6MBATO with the perfective present (= perfective future), cf. § 104.

## The Past (perfective).

This is the equivalent of the acrist and its use connotes that the action is completed; it can never be used for any action that is habitual, frequentative, or indefinite:

я написа́ль = I wrote, or I have written, or I had written.

Examples of the use of this tense:

я написаль твоему́ отцу́ письмо́ = I have written your father a letter

что вы сдвлали? = what have you done?

There is one curious use of the perfective past which, owing to its prevalence and peculiarity, deserves special mention. The perfective past of any verb can be combined with the neuter singular of the past of 6hth, viz. 6610, to convey the meaning that an action was on the point of being completed and was only just prevented; it is the Russian way of saying was on the point of, was just about to..., e.g.

онъ на́чаль было приподнима́ться на посте́ли чтобъ встать... = he was on the point of beginning to raise himself on the bed, in order to get up (when some one addressed him and he stopped where he was)

не дожидаясь отвёта онъ пошёть было вонъ = without waiting for an answer he was just going to leave the room (when he was stopped)

Алёша сталь было оть лике́ра отказываться = Alesha was about to refuse the liqueur

я было сказа́ль ему, а онь уже́ по $\acute{h}$ халь = I was just going to tell him, but he had already gone.

Although this construction usually implies an unfulfilled intention it is sometimes used when the action was really accomplished, but was interrupted at the very moment of completion.

Another idiomatic construction with much the same meaning is чуть было не with the perfective past, e.g.

онь чуть было не всталь съ постали = he almost got up from the bed (sc. but didn't)

я чуть было не упаль = I very nearly fell.

This is in fact the usual way of saying nearly followed by a verb, as the adverb nearly (почти́) is almost exclusively used with nouns and adjectives.

# The use of the Imperfective Past where that of the Perfective Past is to be expected.

This is very common and for the foreigner immensely increases the difficulty of correct expression. It is most frequent in negative sentences; negation of an action seems to the Russian to demand an imperfective verb. E.g.

я не писать ему́ may mean: I was not writing to him; but it may also mean, and usually does: I have not written to him.

Very common phrases are:

вы мнь давно не писали = you haven't written to me for a long time

я никогда́ не вида́ть eró (imperfective) = I hare never seen him (N.B. In Russian two negatives do not make an affirmative) я не слыха́ла ей (imperfective) = I have not heard her (sc. never).

But where the negation refers to one particular event, the perfective may be used, e.g.

не я э́то сдъла́ть = it was not I (who) did this я не узна́ть вась = I didn't recognize you.

In interrogative sentences also, where the question covers a long period of time, the imperfective is also frequently used (-ли is the interrogative particle):

писа́ли-ли вы дѣлали-ли вы вида́ли-ли вы неагд ? = have you ever written, done, seen, heard ?

In general it may be said that in negative and interrogative sentences the imperfective is, in the nature of things, more usual than the perfective aspect.

A most unexpected use of the imperfective past is made in some cases where the action is quite definite and the most obvious aspect to use would seem to be the perfective. These are cases in which the speaker who uses the imperfective instead of the perfective aspect wishes by so doing to give a slightly indefinite tone to what he is saying; by using the imperfective instead of the

perfective he makes a suggestion, as it were, instead of a statement. To the beginner this seems a gross inconsistency, but it is really a very subtle refinement.

For example, one often hears Russians say:

онъ мнъ писаль объ этомъ

when one definite letter is referred to and the meaning can only be: he wrote to me about this, or he did write to me, &c.; in this case the use of the imperfective may connote hostility or incredulity in the mind of the speaker, or it may be merely intentional vagueness.

Another very common instance is:

онъ говориять мнв, что ... = he told me, that ...

where a perfective verb would be natural; in this case there is an English equivalent, for we often say: he was telling me when we mean he told me.

The imperfective past is used where one would expect the perfective past particularly frequently in the case of the following verbs:

ходить and its compounds, вздить, compounds of взжать, and носить, водить and возить and their compounds, amongst others.

These are all verbs of motion and their use in such cases usually implies a stay of short duration and subsequent return to the point of departure, e.g.:

въ прошломъ году́ мы вздили въ Россио = lust year we went to Russia (for a trip)

мы вчера́ ходи́ли въ теа́тръ = yesterday we went to the theatre

сейчасъ прійзжаль ко мнѣ Оболе́нскій и привози́ль письмо́, то́лько что полу́ченное имъ отъ брата Дмитрія . . .

Obolenski has just come to (see) me and has brought a letter just received by him from (his) brother Demetrius.

The use of the Perfective Past as an Imperative.

In the case of two verbs the perfective past is used as an imperative; these are:

пошла́ пошла́ fr. inf. пойти́ = to go (on foot) and пошли́ поёхать, &c., fr. inf. поёхать = to go (sc. in any way except on foot)

It must be noticed that the verb of course agrees with the object addressed, e.g.

пошла собака! = be gone, be off (addressing a dog).

#### The use of the Perfective Past in subordinate sentences.

The perfective past is used in subordinate sentences after verbs of declaring, &c., when the event really refers to the past, e. g.

я уже́ сказа́ть вамъ, что написа́ть письмо́ =I have already told you that I have written the letter

but it is important to remember that whenever the action is still going on, even though the principal sentence is in the perfective past, the verb in the subordinate sentence must be in the present or the future (cf. § 102).

я ему сказаль, что не люблю́ его́ = I told him that I didn't like him.

In relative, concessive, temporal, comparative, and consecutive clauses the imperfective and perfective past are of course both common, but its use presents no difficulties; the perfective past is common in temporal clauses beginning with as soon as (какъ только), before (прежде чёмъ, передъ темъ какъ), after (после того какъ), hardly — when — (только что — какъ —), as soon as ever (чуть), until (пока не):

какъ то́лько прі́вхаль, я захвора́ль = as soon as I arrived, I fell ill онъ сдѣлаль э́то пе́редъ тѣмъ, какъ я ему́ написа́ль = he did this before I had written to him

онь написаль это послё того, какь получиль мое инсьмо= he wrote this after he had received my letter

то́лько что я пришёль, какъ онъ у́мерь = hardly had I come, when he died

ты чуть вошёль, я вмигь узнала = thou hadst barely entered, I at once recognized [thee].

#### § 104. The Future (imperfective).

The imperfective future presents no difficulties; it is a compound tense and is formed by  $6\dot{\gamma}\pi y$  (= I shall be) and the imperfective infinitive. It is always used when any future action is referred to the completion of which is not envisaged by the speaker.

It must be remembered that it is only the imperfective infinitive which can be used after όγπγ; to use a perfective infinitive after

бу́ду is one of the worst mistakes a foreigner can make. An example of the tense is given in full:

я буду писать

ты будень писать

онъ, она будеть писать

мы будемь писать

вы будете писать

они, онъ будуть писать

= I am going to write (sc. indefinitely).

An example of the use of the imperfective future:

что вы будете дилать посли завтрака? = what are you going to do after lunch (= in the afternoon)?

я бу́ду писа́ть, чита́ть = I am going to write, read

вы бу́дете писа́ть мив? = you will write to me? (sc. more than once) бу́ду = I will.

Стану, станешь, &c. (from стать = to become, to take up one's stand), is also used followed by an imperfective infinitive to form this same tense, instead of бу́ду, but it is much commoner in the written than in the spoken language. It is particularly common in negative sentences.

The use of the imperfective future in subordinate sentences does not present any difficulties, but cf. § 102.

## The Future (perfective).

This is in form exactly the same as the present, and is in theory the present tense of the perfective aspect, while in fact it always has future meaning. It is used when the completion of any future action is contemplated by the speaker. The use of this tense is at first the most puzzling for the beginner.

#### Examples:

я напишу́ ему́ тепе́рь = I shall write to him now я едь́лаю это за́втра = I shall do this to-morrow.

The imperfective present and the perfective future can of course be used together, e.g.

я посмотрю, что онь тамь дылаеть = 1 shall have a look, what he is doing there

while

я смотрю, что онъ делаеть = I am watching, what he is doing.

There is one use of the perfective future which is very idiomatic and requires special notice. The perfective future of any verb can be combined with the neuter singular of the past of 6616475 (the imperfective frequentative form of 66175 = to be), viz. 6616476, to convey the idea of a perfective or definite action which used to take place often or customarily in the past:

зайдёть она бывало ко мнь чай инть = she used often to look in on me to have tea (зайдёть = she will look in on, perfective)

онъ бывало скажеть мнв: 'Принеси стаканъ воды' = he would often say to me: 'Bring me a glass of water.'

Бывало can also be used with the imperfective present to express an imperfective habitual action in the past, but this construction is not so common.

The perfective future is also used in narration like a historic present, e.g.

Татына то вздохнёть, то охнеть = at one moment Tatyana would sigh, at another she would groan.

It is also frequently used where one would expect I cannot followed by a perfective infinitive, e.g.:

не разберу́ ничего́, всё вздоръ = I can't make out a word, it's all nonsense (lit. I shall not be able to make out).

#### Use of the Future in subordinate clauses.

The future is often used in Russian in subordinate sentences, where in English we use the past or the verb would, should, e.g. after verbs of declaring, &c.:

He said that he would be there, or that he was going to be there = онь сказаль, что будеть тамъ (lit. = he said that he will be there)

I knew that he would do this, or that he was going to do this = я зналь, что онь это сдылаеть (= I knew that he will do this)

She did not know that I was going to write = она не знала, что я напишу́ &c.

In relative clauses the perfective future is used after kto hu = whoever, the hu = whatever:

что вы ни скажете, я вамъ не повърю = whatever you may say,
I shall not believe uou.

The use of the perfective future is especially common in temporal clauses with the meaning of the future perfect where we in English illogically use the present, e.g.

напини́те, какъ то́лько прів́дете = write as soon as you arrive (lit. shall arrive)

подумайте хорошенько, передь темь какъ сделаете это = reflect well before you do this (lit. will do)

скажемъ вамъ всё послъ того, какъ вернёмся = we shall tell you everything after we return (lit. shall return).

N.B. RAKE is often used alone with the meaning when. Until is usually expressed by noká he, though he is sometimes omitted, e.g.

я не напишу́, пока́ не получу́ отъ него́ письмо́ = I shall not write, until I have a letter from him.

The perfective future is often used in conditional clauses where we use the present illogically:

éсли онъ сд $\acute{b}$ лаеть  $\acute{e}$ то, я закрич $\acute{y}=if$  he does this (lit. will do) I shall scream.

§ 105. The Conditional (imperfective and perfective).

The conditional, as already explained in § 92, is not a separate tense in form, but is merely compounded of the past and the particle 651. It can be formed from the imperfective as well as from the perfective past, but it is far more commonly formed from the latter.

The peculiarity of the tense from the syntactical point of view is that it can refer to the future as well as to the past, e.g.

я бы сд бы сд

что вы бы написа́ли? = what would you have written? or what would you write?

это было-бы невозможно = that would have been impossible, or that would be impossible.

# Other uses of the Conditional.

The conditional is very common in relative sentences beginning with whoever, whatever, expressed in Russian by the relative pronouns kto tto, followed by the 6m of the conditional and the negative particle hm:

кто бы это ни написать, я ему скажу .. = whoever wrote this, I shall tell him

что бы вы ни сділали, ничего не поможеть = whatever you do, nothing will help

что бы это ни стоило, надо это сделать = whatever it cost, we must do this

что бы ни случилось, повдемъ = whatever happens, we shall go.

The conditional is used in unfulfilled conditional sentences, both in the principal and in the subordinate sentences; in the latter it is joined to the word  $ext{con} (= if)$  and is usually reduced to  $\theta_b$ , e.g.

я бы сдылать это, еслибы могь = I should have done this if I had been able

е́слибъ она́ хотѣла, она бы написа́ла = if she had wished (to), she would have written.

But it must be carefully observed that if the condition is still capable of fulfilment either in the present or the past, these tenses are used in Russian and not the conditional, e.g.

е́сли можете, напишите теперь = if you can, write now

я бу́ду о́чень радь, е́сли вы сдѣлаете э́то. = I should be very glad if you did this (lit. = I shall be very glad if you will do this).

The conditional is used in final clauses where the subject of the subordinate is not the same as that of the principal sentence; 6m is always joined to the conjunction which introduces the subordinate sentence, e.g.

я пишу́ ему́, что́бы онъ узна́ль пра́вду = I am writing to him in order that he may learn the truth

онь дёла́еть э́то, что́бы мы замё́тили eró = he is doing this in order that we may notice him

она помогна ем $\phi$ , чтобы онь потомъ помогь ей = she helped him in order that he might later help her.

The conditional is used in concessive clauses if the sense is hypothetical, e.g.

хотя́-бы зналь, что вы тамъ, я бы не могь придти́ = even though
I had known you were there I should not have been able to come.

The conditional is used after all verbs of wishing, commanding, and praying, both affirmative and negative; the subordinate sentences are introduced by чтобы от чтобь, e.g.

я хочу, чтобъ онъ это сд $\hat{h}$ даль = I wish him to do this (lit. I wish that he would do this)

она хочеть, чтобъ я ей написаль = she wishes me to write to her (... чтобъ я ей писаль would mean to write more than once, often)

онъ приказа́лъ, что́бы вы пошли́ къ нему́ = he ordered you to go to him

она просила, чтобы мы это сдълали = she begged us to do this.

The conditional is often used after verbs of declaring, feeling, and believing when the verb in the principal sentence is negatived; the subordinate sentence is introduced by чтобы от чтобы, e.g.

я не говорю, чтобы это было такъ = I do not say, that this is so я не думаю, чтобы онъ это сдылать = I do not think that he did it я не вырю, чтобы было опасно = I don't believe that it is dangerous

когда́ я пипцу́, я не люблю́ что́бы со мной говори́ли = when I write I don't like people to talk to me.

In conversation, however, the present and past are often used instead of the conditional, and when the subordinate sentence refers to the future, then the future only is used, e.g.

я не думаю, что будеть хо́лодно = I don't think that it will be cold.

The conditional, negatived, is often used after verbs of fearing (бояться) expressing a positive fear; the subordinate sentence is introduced by чтобы от какъ-бы, e.g.

я боюсь, чтобы вы не простудились = I am afraid that you will catch cold

я боюсь, какъ-бы онъ не узнать = I am afraid he will find out though что followed by the perfective future can also be used in such cases, and must be if the fear is negative, e.g.

я боюсь, что онъ мн $\ddot{\mathbf{b}}$  не напишеть = I am afraid that he will not write me.

The conditional is also used invariably after certain negative expressions, e.g.

невозможно, чтобы это было правда = it is impossible that this is true (lit. the truth)

невѣроя́тно, что́бы онъ написа́лъ мнѣ = it is improbable that he would write me, or that he will write.

The particle 611 is sometimes used by itself in certain expressions elliptically, e.g.

воть-бы хорошо́! = there, wouldn't that be nice!

For the use of 6m with the infinitive cf. § 107.

# § 106. The Imperative (imperfective and perfective).

The imperative is used in Russian as in English. The difference between the imperfective and the perfective imperative is that the former implies a command of a more general nature, while the latter refers to the immediate present, e.g.

смотри́, смотри́те! = look out (sc. take care)! посмотри́, посмотри́те! = look here! слу́шайте меня́! (inf. слу́шать) = listen to me (sc. take my advice)! послу́шайте! (inf. послу́шать) = listen!

Very often the imperfective imperative is used when it is a question of polite request rather than of a peremptory command; this is especially so in the case of the verb to take, inf. брать (imperfective), and взять (perfective), e.g.

берите это = take this

is more polite than

возьмите, though the latter is often used.

The same holds good of the verb to hand, to serve, inf. подавать (imperfective), подать (perfective), е. g.

подавай (те) объдъ! = serve the dinner!

is more polite than

пода́й(те) мнъ счёть! = give (lit. hand) me the bill!

The imperatives of the verb to allow, to let, inf. ηγεκάτω (imperfective), ηγετάτω (perfective), followed by the 3rd sing. of the perfective future, are used to express the 3rd sing. of the imperative (cf. § 93), e.g.

пусть ог пускай скажеть вамь  $= let \ him \ tell \ you$  пускай сделаеть  $= let \ him \ do \ it$  пусть напишеть  $= let \ him \ write.$ 

The imperative garafi(Te) is very commonly used colloquially with the meaning let's, e.g.

давай (те) играть въ карты! = let's have a game of cards!

to which the answer usually is:

дава́й(те) = [yes] let's!

The imperative дай(те) is often used with the meaning let, e.g. дай(те) мнв говорить! = let me speak.

In prohibitions the imperfective is used, e.g.

не давайте ей говорить! = don't let her speak.

In negative commands the imperfective imperative is almost invariably used, even when the prohibition only covers a definite act or period of time, e.g.

не пишите emý! = don't write to him! (= either now, or in future)

не смотрите! = don't look!

не говорите ему ! = don't tell him!

не говорите! = don't talk abcut it!

(for the use of the infinitive in commands cf. § 107).

An exception is the verb

to forget, inf. забывать (imperfective), забыть (perfective)

of both of which the imperative is quite common, e.g.

не забывайте меня! = don't forget me

but не забудьте что я вамъ сказа́лъ! = don't forget what I told you!

не забу́дьте! = don't forget!

не забудьте написать мн $\mathfrak{b}! = don't$  forget to write to me!

(cf. незабу́дка = forget-me-not).

#### Use of the Imperative in conditional sentences.

The imperative is frequently used in Russian in unfulfilled conditional sentences; in this construction the imperative can be combined with any noun or pronoun, e. g.

будь этоть домь дешевле, я бы купиль его = if this house had been chraper, I should have bought it (lit. = be this house cheaper).

In this construction the perfective imperative is always used in spite of the negative:

не случись тамъ лодка, я бы утонуть = if a boat hadn't happened [to be] there, I should have been drowned

не сды́лай онъ этого, она бы пришла́ = if he had not done this, she would have come

скажи я слово, онь бы и написаль = if I had said the word, he would have written

чужо́го не жела́й—своего́ не тери́й = if you don't covet other people's goods, you won't lose your own.

There is a very idiomatic use of the imperative which is especially common in narration and deserves mention. This is a combination of the imperative of the perfective verb взя́ться = to appear (lit. to take oneself), viz. возьми́сь with the words отку́да ни = whencesoever, e. g.

вдру́гь, отку́да ни возьми́сь, за́яць! = suddenly, as if from nowhere, there appeared a hare!

Notice also the following idiomatic uses of the imperative:

Toró i cmotpú, что онъ унадёть! = I am afraid that (sc. at any moment or before we know where we are) he will fall (lit. = look out!)

помина́й какъ зва́ли! = you'll never see [him] again (lit. = remember how they called him, sc. his name)

кажись (instead of кажется) = it seems, one would think.

Another idiomatic use of the imperative is with the conjunction xote, when it acquires the meaning you may as well . . .

écли вы не поможете въ нашей просьов, то ужъ не знаемъ, какъ п быть: просто коть въ петлю полвай! = if you don't help us in our request, we simply shan't know what to do: we may as will go and hang ourselves! (lit. climb into the noose)

ничего́ нельза́ съ э́тимъ сді́лать, хоть брось = nothing can be done with this, you may as well fling it away.

Sometimes  $xotb = even \ though \ (= xotá)$  in this same construction:

хоть убей, не скажу = even though you kill me, I shall not tell.

# § 107. The Infinitive (imperfective and perfective).

The difference in meaning between the two aspects of the infinitive has already been explained; it remains to give some examples of the various uses of the infinitive.

In expressions of a general character the imperfective infinitive is always used, e.g.

писать книги непріятно = to write books is unpleasant

while if a single event is referred to the perfective is of course necessary, e.g.

ско́лько у него́ де́негь? тру́дно сказа́ть = how much money has he? it is difficult to tell.

The following idiomatic use of the infinitive should be noticed: nevero génate = there is nothing to be done

онь пьёть оть нечего д'язать = he drinks because he has nothing to do (lit. from doing nothing)

говорить нечего (от нечего и говорить)! = there's nothing more to be said! (sc. that goes without saying)

(cf. § 51)

YML TAKE II GEITS = such is fate, or very well then, let's make the best of it!

стало-быть = consequently . . . or in that case, I suppose . . .

After verbs of beginning, continuing, ceasing, finishing, &c., the imperfective is used, e. g.

уже́ на́чали игра́ть = they have already begun to play онъ продолжа́ль чита́ть = he continued to read они́ переста́ли говори́ть = they ceased talking я ко́нчиль писа́ть = I have finished writing

and of course all the more when these verbs are negatived.

After the verb to know how to, inf. ymsts (imperfective), chymsts (perfective), the imperfective and perfective infinitives respectively are used, e.g.

онь умбеть дблать фокусы = he knows how to do tricks сумбете-ин вы это сдблать? = will you know how to do this?

After the verb to have time to, inf. yenebate (imperfective), yeners (perfective), the perfective is naturally always used, e.g.

я наждый день усивыю написать инть ийсемь = every day 1 manage to write five letters

усићете-ин вы это сдёлать сего́дня? = shall you have time to do this to-day?

After the verb to be able, inf. Moun (imperfective), both aspects are used, according to the sense, e.g.

можете-ли вы это сд $^{6}$ лать? = can you do this?

я не могу́ говори́ть (imperfective) = I can't speak (sc. am physically unable)

я не могу́ сказа́ть (perfective) = I can't say

я не могь писать = I could not write (sc. was physically unable)

я не могъ написать = I could not write (sc. just then, that once), or I have been unable to write (sc. till now)

The perfective future of this verb is supplied as a rule by the perfective verb:

cymbть = to know how to,

but this again is not used where it is a question of surmounting physical difficulties. In this case the Russians as often as not use the imperfective present MOTÝ, &c., illogically with future meaning, just as we do in English, e.g.

я могу́ придти́ за́втра = I can come to-morrow (sc. shall be able to).

The imperfective future of mous is not used; its place is taken by the phrase

буду въ состояни + inf. = I shall be in a position to . . .

After the verb to wish, inf. xorérs (imperfective), either aspect can be used, e.g.

я хочу́ писать = I wish to write (sc. be an author)

н хочу́ написать письмо́ = I wish to write a letter

я не хочу́ говори́ть (imperfective) = I don't want to talk

я не хочу́ сказа́ть (perfective) = I don't want to say

я хотыть сказать = I meant to say.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> N.B. The perfective aspect of move is cmove, pres. cmorý = *I shall be able*, but this is very seldom used; whenever it is, it implies the surmounting of great physical difficulty.

After verbs such as modáte = to like, предпочитать = to prefer, по мобáte = to dislike, the imperfective infinitive is of course the more usual.

After verbs of refusing, agreeing, &c., either aspect can be used, though the perfective is the commoner.

#### Use of the Infinitive instead of the Future.

This is common in such phrases as:

что-же дълать? = what are we to do? (what is to be done?)

написать-ли ему? = shall I write to him?

что написать? = what shall I write?

пойти и сказать ему = I shall go and tell him (or let us...)

какъ намъ быть? = how are we to manage?

зачъмъ продать? = why are you (or we) going to sell? (= why sell?)

сказать вамъ = shall I tell you?

какъ вамъ сказать = (lit. = how shall I tell you?) how shall

I put it?

## Use of the Infinitive with the conditional particle.

This occurs in such phrases as:
посмотръть-бы? = shall we have a look?
Often it is merely the verb было that has been omitted, e.g. хорошо́-бы поъ́хать = it would be nice to go
попробовать-бы? = shall we have a try (or a taste)?

## Use of the Infinitive instead of the Imperative.

This is especially common in public notices, e.g. Éxatь márowь! (imperfective) = drive at walking speed! (cf. aller au pas!)
никого́ не пуска́ть! (imperfective) = don't let any one go!
наплева́ть! = spit! (sc. take no notice of it!)

The infinitive плевать can even be used in place of a finite verb, e.g.

я плевать на твоего́ хозя́нна! = I don't care in the least about your master!

#### Use of the Infinitive in subordinate sentences.

In final clauses the infinitive is used when the subject of the subordinate is the same as that of the principal sentence (cf. § 105), e. g.

н пишу́ ему́, что́бы узна́ть пра́вду = I am writing to him in order to find out the truth

онъ д $\dot{b}$ лаеть  $\dot{s}$ то, чт $\dot{o}$ бы пом $\dot{o}$ чь мн $\dot{b}$  = he is doing this in order to help me.

In conditional clauses the infinitive is very common, e.g.

е́сли ему́ написа́ть, онъ сдѣлаеть сей-ча́сь = if we write to him, he will do it at once

е́сли вамъ сказа́ть, вы не пове́рите = if I tell you, you won't believe [me].

Sometimes the écan is omitted, and the infinitive used in the principal as well as in the subordinate sentence, e.g.

много желать — добра́ не видать = if you wish for much, you'll see no good

пойти — такъ пойти! = if we are going, then let's go!

A very curious idiomatic use of the infinitive is mentioned here, as it is at first extremely puzzling to the foreigner; it is often, though not always, in the form of an answer to a question, and consists of the infinitive followed by the past or present of the same verb, while in meaning it always implies dissatisfaction or the non-fulfilment of a possibility, e.g.

#### Question:

слыха́ли-ли вы про это? = have you heard about this?

#### Answer:

слыха́ть-то слыха́ль, но не вѣ́рю = oh yes, I have heard, but I don't believe it.

## Question:

вида́ли-ли вы цара́? = have you seen the tsar?

#### Answer:

видать-то видать! = oh yes, I've seen him (sc. but never spoken to him)

говори́ть-то она говори́ть, а ничего́ не дѣ́лаеть = she talks a lot, but does nothing

yméte-to s yméte, no s ne kouý = I know how to [do it], but I don't want to.

§ 108. The Gerund (imperfective and perfective).

The gerund is used in Russian as in other languages to avoid the complication of an explanatory (usually subordinate) sentence.

The present gerund is naturally formed only from imperfective verbs; the past gerund from both imperfective and perfective. Whenever a gerund from a perfective verb does have the ending of the present gerund, viz. -s, it has perfective (past) meaning, e.g. from

inf. увидыть = to perceive

past perfective gerund

уви́дѣвши and уви́дя } = having perceived.

## Examples of the use of the Gerunds.

бу́дучи въ го́родь, мы зашли́ къ вамъ = being in the town, we looked you up

прочита́въ письмо́, онъ пов́халь = having read the letter, he departed

говори́въ три часа́, онъ сѣть на своё мѣ́сто = having spoken for three hours, he sat down in his place.

Some gerunds are very commonly used to express attitude, e.g.

инсать лёжа = to write while lying down

пъть сидя = to sing sitting

говорить стоя = to speak standing up.

The following idioms should be noticed:

мо́лча = in silence

ма́ло погода́ or немно́го погода́ = after a little (lit. = having waited a little) не́хотя = unwillinglu.

Some gerunds have quite lost their original meaning and are used as adverbs or conjunctions:

from хотъ́ть = to wish хотя́ = although

(N.B. willingly is охо́тно)

from sphth = to look

spa = at random, without reflection, to no purpose

from cmotphis = to look

Hecmotphi Ha + acc. = in spite of

cmotphi = all according

e.g. смотря́ какь = that's just as it may happen смотря́ по какой цѣнѣ . . . = according to the price at which . . .

and from ymrt = to know how to, the popular form ymr = having the knowledge, e. g.

это надо сдвлать умьючи = you must have the knack to do this.

# § 109. The Participles (imperfective and perfective).

The participles are little used in conversation but are very common in literature.

There are naturally no present participles formed from perfective verbs. Past participles active are formed from almost all verbs of both aspects; past participles passive are formed from all perfective (transitive) verbs and from a considerable number of imperfective (transitive) verbs.

As regards the use of the participles it may be mentioned that some of them are used as nouns, e.g.

для куря́щихъ = for smokers

для не́курящихъ = for non-smokers

бу́дущее = the future

въ бу́дущемъ = in the future

подлежа́щее = the subject (gram.)

сказу́емое = the predicate ,,

насѣко́мое = insect

while in general it may be said that the present participles both active and passive are far more commonly used as pure adjectives without being considered as participles at all, e.g.

слѣдующій = following is always used for the next въ слѣдующемъ году́ = next year свѣдущій = knowing, learned онъ о́чень свѣдущь по + dat. = he is very learned in . . . настоящій = (1) present (of time), = (2) real бу́дущій = future любимый = favourite зависимый = dependent независимый = independent.

Notice the idiom:

повидимому = apparently.

Present participles passive beginning with He- correspond to our e.g. in - able

e. g. неумоли́мый = inexorable неоцѣни́мый = invaluable.

From several verbs two forms of participle are in use, the regular present participle in -min (which is phonetically not Russian but Old Bulgarian) and the purely adjectival form in -min (which is the original Russian form of the present participle);

e.g. from горя́ть = to burn (intrans.)
горя́щій = burning
горя́чій = hot (esp. of water, food, &c.).

Notice the following present participles which are very common in letter-writing:

The past participle active, too, is but rarely used as a participle. One or two forms are very commonly used as adjectives or nouns, e.g.

бы́вшій = former

проше́дшій =  $past^1$  (esp. in grammar).

Notice

сумасше́дшій = madman

from сойти сь ума = to go mad (lit. to go off one's mind).

The past participle passive is by far the most commonly used of all the participles, and even is not rare in conversation. This participle also often takes the place of the passive, e.g.

къмъ эта книта была́ переведена́? = by whom was this book translated?

newly-formed from the perfective past прошёль are far commoner.

<sup>1</sup> Though the forms прошлый = last прошлое = the past

къмъ эта пъсса написана? = by whom is this play written? она одъта въ чёрномъ = she is dressed in black.

In this case also many participles are almost entirely used as adjectives, e.g.

проклятый = accursed вышеупомя́нутый = above-mentioned.

Notice the idioms:

за́нято = occupied (of places in train, &c.) за́перто = shut (of buildings) битко́мъ наби́то = chock-full.

## § 110. The Reflexive Verb and the expression of the Passive.

The reflexive verb can sometimes be used, as well as the passive participles, to express the passive, but as a matter of fact phrases which in other languages are in the passive are in Russian very often expressed in the active, e.g.

he is very much liked would be always translated его о́чень любять

he is hated = его очень не любять

this is not done = этого не делають

though the phrase это не дылается is also common

(родить

this paper is little read= эту газе́ту ма́до чита́ють ог эта газе́та ма́до чита́ется.

As a matter of fact, reflexive verbs in Russian are often merely the intransitive forms of otherwise transitive verbs, e.g.

мыть = to wash (trans.)
мыться = to wash (intrans.)
купать = to bathe (trans.)
купаться = to bathe (intrans.)
продолжать = to continue (trans.)
продолжаться = to continue (intrans.)
родиться = to be born

= to bear child)

but N.B.

онъ продолжаеть писать = he continues to write.

Some transitive verbs when used intransitively require the complete reflexive pronoun instead of the abbreviated form -ca, e.g.

чу́вствовать = to feel (trans.) чу́вствовать себи́ = to feel (intrans.) я себи́ чу́вствую нехорошо́ = I don't feel well какъ вы себи́ чу́вствуете ? = how do you feel?

Many reflexive verbs which are intransitive have no corresponding transitive form, e.g.

сморка́ться = to blow one's nose призна́ться = to confess улыба́ться = to smile каза́ться = to seem остава́ться = to laugh остава́ться = to remain станови́ться = to become случа́ться = to happen. надъ́яться = to hope простуди́ться = to take cold

бояться = to fear is both transitive and intransitive.

#### The verbs

нравиться = to please любова́ться = to admire насаться = to touch, concern наслажда́ться = to enjoy

are looked upon as intransitive, and take the first the dative, the second the genitive, and the last two the instrumental.

A few reflexive verbs are only used impersonally:

смерка́ется = it is growing dark мнь хо́чется = I want to . . . мнь нездоро́вится = I don't feel well мнь не спи́тся = I can't get to sleep, I don't sleep well мнь сни́тся = I see in my dream, (he) appears to me in my dream че́шется = it itches разумь́ется = it is understood, of course.

Notice the curious use of the impersonal verb:

приходится (lit. = it comes itself)

1. = one has to

приходится играть = one has to play (мнѣ) приплось заплатить = (I) had to pay что придётся намъ сдѣлать? = what shall we have to do?

2. = stands in relation to (me) + inst.

она приходится мнѣ двоюродной cectpón = she stands in the relationship of first cousin to me = she is my first cousin.

#### § 111. Impersonal Verbs.

Besides the impersonal reflexive verbs already mentioned, a few others, the use of some of which is peculiar, may be noticed here. Some do not call for comment, e. g.

болить = it hurts

у меня́ голова́ боли́ть = my head aches

", sy6" ", = my tooth", (this can of course also be used in the plural)

подмораживаеть = it is beginning to freeze.

It is freezing is usually expressed merely by the noun mopóss = frost (sc. there is a frost), e.g.

сего́дня моро́зь = it is freezing to-day similarly сего́дня о́ттепель = it is thawing.

It is raining can only be expressed by:

дождь идёть (= rain is going)

дождь льёть = it is pouring cf. chѣть идёть = it is snowing

градъ идёть = it hails

мо́днія сверка́еть = the lightning is flashing громъ гремать = the thunder is thundering.

These phrases are expressed in the past and the future as follows:

вчера́ шёль дождь = yesterday it rained

но́чію вы́паль сн'ягь = there has been a fall of snow in the night пошёль дождь = it has started raining

вчера́ быль сильный моро́зь = yesterday there was a hard frost бу́деть дождь = it is going to rain (there will be of rain)

не бу́деть дожд $\hat{n} = it$  is not going to rain переста́ль дожд $\hat{n} = the$  rain has stopped.

The impersonal verb can also be used, e.g.

вышало много снъту (gen.) = much snow has fallen (it has fallen out much of snow)

замело́ от занесло́ доро́гу снѣ́гомъ = the road has got covered with snow.

To smell (intrans.) is expressed as follows:

пахнеть хорошо́ = it smells nice пахнеть розами = it smells of roses and by a curious impersonal use of the verb несты́ = to carry оть него́ несёть духа́ми = he smells of scent (lit. = it carries with scents from him).

To suffice :

хвата́еть (imperfective) = it suffices хва́тить (perfective) = it will suffice недостаёть = it wants

e.g. недостаёть мив  $eró = I \ miss \ him.$ 

Notice the following:

достаточно } = that is enough

можно = опе тау

можно сказать = one may say

мо́жно говори́ть = talking is allowed

мо́жно ? = may one ?

нельзя́ = one may not, it is impossible

нельзя́ сказать = one can't say

but N.B. неизвъстно = one can't tell (sc. know)

MSBECTHO, 4TO . . . = it is well known that

возможно можеть быть = it is possible

возможно, что откажется =it is possible that he will refuse

можеть быть онь знаеть = perhaps he knows

the latter phrase is very commonly transposed: быть можеть

невозможно = it is impossible

невозможно, чтобы онь не знать = it is impossible that he does not know

должно́ быть = lit. it must be, but comes to mean it is probable, I expect

должно́ быть, онъ зна́еть = I expect he knows

стало быть = lit. it has become (or begun) to be, but comes to mean consequently, I suppose

стало быть, вы его не любите? = then I suppose (I must conclude that) you don't love him?

стало быть — такъ! = I suppose it is so

не стало + gen. = there is no more of

у него не стало денеть = his money came to an end

на́до = it is necessary

мнѣ на́до это сдѣлать сего́дня = I must do this to-day
не на́до = one must or need not, don't
не на́до написа́ть сего́дня = it is not necessary to write (the letter)
to-day

to-day
сказать вамь? = shall I tell you?
ньть, не надо = no, don't
нужно = it is necessary
не нужно = не надо
следуеть = it is proper, ought (lit. = follows)
не следуеть = it is not correct
вамь следовало-бы . . . = you ought to . . .

Notice the impersonal use of the verb to begin:

начина́еть темнъ́ть = it is beginning to grow dark but когда́ начина́ется конце́рть? = when does the concert begin?

Other common impersonal expressions are:

# § 112. How to express the verb to be.

The present tense of the verb GMTB = to be has long since become obsolete; it is either omitted absolutely or its place is taken, in writing by a long hyphen, in speaking by a pause, e.g.

я англича́нинъ = I am an Englishman э́то — мой сынъ = this is my son

whether the pause is made or not entirely depends on how much emphasis the speaker wishes to put in the subject of the sentence.

Notice the fact that the phrases this is, that is, there are, those are, are usually expressed by ito irrespective of the number and gender of the predicate, e.g.

э́то мо́н жена́ = this is my wife э́то мо́н дѣти = these are my children

unless of course special emphasis is laid on the pronoun, e.g.

ть книти eró, a эти — мой = those books are his, but these are mine.

Here is, here are are often expressed by BOTE, e.g.

воть мой домъ = here is my house,

BOTL can also mean over there is; if very remote distance is pointed to BOHL TAML can be used.

The 3rd sing. of the present is still very commonly used in certain cases, e.g.

Tó ecth = that is (to say)  $\mathbf{T}$ . e. = i. e.

Combined with y and a pronoun it is the commonest way of saying have, e.g.

у меня́ есть = I have у него́ есть = he has

though as often as not in these cases the verb ecrs is omitted.

In shops, restaurants, &c., when asking a question, есть must be used, e.g.

Question:

есть у вась икра = have you any caviare?

Answer:

есть = we have.

the negative answer is always

ньть or ньту = we have not.

HETE is really a contraction of He ecre, and has come to be the ordinary word for no; it also means there is not and thus have not, e.g.

у меня́ нѣть = I have notу меня́ нѣть отца́ = I have no father.

To есть is sometimes added the interrogative particle -ли, though eсть by itself, if the voice is inflected accordingly, is quite sufficient to indicate the question.

Есть-ли is apt to sound like е́сли (=if), and е́сли is in fact a corruption of есть-ли.

Hete-ли у вась? is also a very common way of saying have you got?

Найдётся-ли у вась? from найти (=  $to \ find$ ) is also much used to express the same thing.

Eсть is also used for there is, there are in such cases as:

есть такіе люди, которы́е не лю́бять икры́ = there are such people, who don't like caviare

есть многія вещи, о которыхь я бы хотёль съ вами поговорить = there are many things about which I should like to talk to you въ этой книгь есть много хорошаго = in this book there is much that is good.

The 3rd sing. ects and the 3rd pl. cyts are also used in emphatic declarations or definitions; it should be noted, however, that cyts is very little used, and that ects can be used for any of the three persons singular or plural, e.g.

Турге́невъ люби́лъ ру́сскихъ какъ они́ есть = Turgenev loved the Russians as they are

жизнь есть трудь для бу́дущаго покол $\acute{\text{h}}$ нія = life is labour for the next generation.

Owing to the fact that ects is so seldom used, single adverbs acquire the meaning of whole sentences, e.g.

ко́лодно = it is cold

тепло́ = it is warm

жа́рко = it is hot

мо́жно = it is possible

на́до = it is necessary

мн's ко́лодно = I am cold, &c.

The 3rd sing. of the present of бывать, the imperfective frequentative of быть, is often used:

это часто бываеть = that often happens это никогда не бываеть = that never happens онь у нась бываеть = he sometimes comes to see us.

The past tense of быть does not call for special mention. It is often used to express the idea of visits, e.g.

я быль у нихъ вчер $\acute{a} = I$  went to see them yesterday.

The neuter is often used impersonally:

тамь было двадцать человить = there were twenty people there.

(For other uses of было and бывало cf. §§ 103, 104.)

The future бу́ду presents no difficulties. Notice the idiom:

бу́деть! = enough!

(For uses of the future, conditional, imperative, and infinitive of 6ыть cf. §§ 104-107.)

# § 113. Various forms of Imperfective and Perfective Verbs.

It has already been remarked that most perfective verbs are formed from imperfective verbs by prefixing a preposition to the latter, and that the preposition used for this purpose loses its meaning. It is impossible to tell which preposition in each particular case is used for the particular purpose of making the imperfective verb perfective, as various prepositions are thus used, e.g.

Imperfective	3.	Perfective.
смотрѣть	to look	посмотрѣть
писать	to write	написать
дѣлать	to do	сдѣлать
знать	to know	узнать
	and others	

The only thing that can be said is that no is used in an infinitely greater number of cases for this purpose than any other preposition. But it must be remembered that while one preposition merely makes the imperfective verb perfective and loses its own meaning, all the other prepositions when compounded with the same verb both make the verb perfective and endow it at the same time with their own special meaning. For instance:

разсмотръть = to examine closely приписать = to ascribe, to add in writing передълать = to do over again, to alter.

These verbs, as has been remarked, are perfective; the imperfective verbs corresponding to them in meaning, i. e. compounded with the same preposition, are the so-called frequentative imperfective verbs, which form a subsidiary category of imperfective verbs. These verbs are frequentative (or iterative) for the most part only in name; the large majority of them are quite ordinary imperfective verbs. Their peculiarity is that even when they are preceded by a preposition they do not, like other verbs, become perfective. They remain imperfective, forming the ordinary imperfective verb corresponding to a perfective verb which has been made perfective by having a preposition added to it and at the same time been altered in meaning by that preposition. These frequentative imperfective verbs are all formed by some alteration of the stem of the verb, either by lengthening it or by

altering the vowel which precedes the infinitive ending. These verbs seldom occur in their simple form, i. e. uncompounded with a preposition, but one or two are quite commonly used, e. g.

бывать (from быть) = to be often это бываеть = that sometimes happens и у нихь бываю = I am in the habit of going to see them говаривать (from говорить) = to be in the habit of saying онь такъ говариваль = he often used to say so.

Such verbs are really frequentative in meaning. But in the great majority of cases, i.e. when compounded with prepositions, they are merely ordinary imperfective verbs. They may have frequentative meaning, but this as a rule has to be specially expressed by the addition of some such word as vácto = often. E. g. забывать is theoretically the frequentative imperfective from забыть (perfective) = to forget; я забываю may mean I often (or always) forget, but on the other hand it may mean merely I am forgetting. Similarly разгова́ривать = to converse is theoretically a frequentative imperfective from говорить, but it may mean either I converse or I am conversing. For this reason it is better not to label these verbs frequentative or iterative, but to call them what they are in the great majority of cases, viz. compound imperfective verbs, in order to differentiate them effectively from the large number of imperfective verbs which are simple and from the perfective verbs the majority of which are compound, while some are simple.

It is now time to examine the various ways in which these compound imperfective verbs are formed.

In a large number of cases they are formed by the insertion of the syllable -bib- or -bib- between the stem of the verb and the infinitive ending. Compound imperfectives from almost all verbs ending in -aib and from many others besides are formed thus and belong to this category. Verbs of this formation which in their original form contain the vowel o in their stems, usually, but not necessarily, change this to a in the compound imperfective. The verbs are here arranged in series of four, e.g.

- 1. пытать = to try = simple imperfective.
- 2. HOUSEMATE = to try = compound perfective with loss of measuring by preposition.

3. MCHARTÁTE = to experience = compound perfective with retention of meaning by preposition.

4. MCHATEBRATE = compound imperfective with retention of meaning by preposition. It must of course not be imagined that the particular compound perfective, with retention of meaning by the preposition, is in each example here given the only compound perfective formed from that verb. In the case of some verbs such compounds are very numerous; the examples here given are chosen at random, but they include only verbs that are commonly used:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
писать	to write	написать
приписывать	to ascribe	приписать
дѣ́лать	to do	сдъ́лать
передѣлывать	to alter	передблать
смотрѣть	to look	посмотрѣть
разсматривать	to examine	разсмотръть
чита́ть	to read	почитать
		прочитать
прочитывать	to read through	прочесть
apo mambana	to read in ough	alternative verbs
		didentical in meaning
искать	to search	поискать
взыскивать	to exact	B3bickátb
работать	to work	поработать
вараба́тывать	to earn	заработать
слу́шать	to listen	послушать
подслу́шивать	to overhear	поделушать
ломать	to break	сломать
проламывать	to break through	проломать
стро́ить	to build	постро́ить
устра́ивать	to arrange	устро́нть
смѣаться	to laugh	<b>з</b> асм'вя́ться
осмѣивать	to deride	осмѣя́ть
кра́сть	to steal	укра́сть
обкрадывать	to rob	обокра́с <b>ть</b>
<b>т</b> яну́ть	to pull	потянуть
<b>ст</b> я́гивать	to tighten, close	стяну́ть
	A 9	

Those verbs of class II, the 1st sing. of whose present is affected by the personal ending -10 (which changes into -y, ef. §§ 87, 88), are similarly affected in their compound imperfective forms, though no longer belonging to the same class, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
просить	to request	попросить
спрашивать	to ask (a question)	спросить
дави́ть	to squash	подавить
задавливать	to throttle	задавить

From a number of perfective verbs the compound imperfectives are formed by inserting -Ba- between the stem and the infinitive ending, e.g.

In	nperfective.		Perfective.
	бить	to hit	побить
	убивать	to kill	убить
	пъть запъвать	to sing to strike up a song	спѣть запѣть
	пить пропива́ть	to drink to spend on drink	вы́ппть пропи́ть
	крыть раскрывать	to cover to uncover, open, discover	покры́ть раскры́ть
	мыть умываться	to wash (trans.) to wash (intrans.)	вы́мыть умы́тьси

Notice especially the verbs (for other simple perfective verbs cf. § 114):

Imperfective.	Perfective.
дава́ть to give	дать
pres. даю́	pres. дамъ
дъ́ва́ть to put	дѣть
pres. дѣва́ю	pres. дѣ́ну

and бывать = to be often, to happen (from быть = to be).

Some verbs of this category cannot be formed in complete series in this way, e.g.

Imperfective.	Perfective
знать to know	Trarrámy
узнавать to learn (news), to recognize	узнать

Imperfective. pres. узнаю́ узнаёшь		Perfective. pres. узнаю узнаешь
устава́ть pres. устаю́ and many other	to take one's stand ' to grow tired very common compounds	ctath pres. ctány yctáth pres. yctány
болёть commonly used с боли́ть заболёва́ть	to be ill only as impersonal it aches to fall ill	забольть

Those verbs which, both in their imperfective and perfective aspects, have no preposition, i.e. do not require a preposition to form their perfective aspect, can of course also be compounded with any preposition in both aspects, the preposition always retaining its meaning, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
дава́ть	to give	дать
подава́ть	to hand, serve	подать
продавать	to sell	продать
придавать	to add	придать
передавать	to hand over	передать
пздавать	to edit, publish	издать
раздавать	to distribute	раздать
воздавать	to reward	воздать
выдава́ть	to deliver	вы́дать
поддаваться	to submit	поддаться
едавать	to deliver	сдать
создавать	to create	создать
задава́ть	to set (e.g. questions)	зада́ть
додава́ть	to complete	додать

(N.B. Many of the compounds here given have other meanings besides those given here, and of course the same applies to other verbs.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For its other meanings cf. p. 214.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
дъва́ть	to put	дъ́ть
одѣва́ть(ся)	to dress	одъ́ть(ся)
надъвать	to put on	надъ́ть
раздѣва́ть(ся)	to undress	раздѣть(ся)
переодѣвать(ся)	to change dress	переодѣть(ся)
задъвать	to catch hold of	задъ́ть
(-става́ть)	to take one's stand	стать
переставать	to cease	перестать
застава́ть	to find (sc. at home)	застать
доставать	to obtain	достать
оставаться	to remain	остаться
вставать	to get up (sc. from bed)	встать
разстава́ться	to part (intrans.)	разстаться

Verbs with infinitives in -чь, -зть, -сти form their compound imperfectives by adding -ать to their stem, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
MOJP	to be able	смочь
помогать	to help	помо́чь
влечь	to drag	повлечь
привлекать	to attract	привлечъ

The verb horn forms its compound imperfective as follows:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
ѣсть	to eat	побсть
съѣда́ть	to eat up, consume	съйсть
надовдать (intrans	.) to importune	надовсть (intrans.)

The cognate verb to dine:

Imperfective.	Perfective.
	пообідать
объ̀дать	отобедать

is from the noun of Egs = dinner.

Verbs of which the stem contains two adjacent consonants insert m or n between these in the compound imperfective, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
слать <sup>1</sup>	to send	послать
pres. шлю		
высыла́ть	to banish	выслать
жать	to press	пожать
pres. жму		
прижимать	to squecze	прижать
звать	to call	позвать
pres. зову́		
называть	to name	назвать
тере́ть	to rub	потереть
pres. Tpy		
обтирать	to wipe	обтере́ть
жечь	to burn (trans.)	сжень
pres. жry		
зажигать	to light, kindle	заже́чь
ждать )	to wait	
pres. жду	to await	
ожидать )	to expect	
поджидать	to wait (for)	подождать
дожида́ться	{ to attain by waiting to await until (arrival) }	дожда́ться

There are several verbs of this kind which are never used except in composition, e.g.

Imperfective.	Perfective.
умира́ть to die	умере́ть
	pres. умру́
начина́ть to begin	начать
	pres. начиу́

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  This verb has an imperfective frequentative of its own, посылать = to send.

The verb -ath (only used in composition with prepositions, cf. § 88) forms its compound imperfectives as follows:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
[-имать]		[-RTE-]
внимать	to attend, hear	внять (pres. not used)
занимать	to occupy, to borrow	заня́ть
		pres. займу́
		займёшь
нанимать	to hire	наня́ть
		pres. найму́, &c.
N.B. понимать	to understand	поня́ть
		pres. nommý
		поймёшь, &с.
поднимать	to lift	поднять
(or подымать)		pres. подниму
		поднимешь, &с.
принимать	to accept	приня́ть
		pres. приму́
		примешь, &с
снимать	to take off (clothes)	снять
	to photograph	pres. сниму́
		снимешь
N.B. —	to take *	взять
cf. § 117		pres. возьму́
[взимать $= to i$		возьмёшь
поймать	to catch	cf. § 117
人名英格兰克 医克里氏病		

In the case of this verb, the stems of which are -nm- and -nm-, the h between the preposition and the stem is explained by the fact that certain prepositions, e.g. ch and be, originally ended in a nasal, which was dropped after such forms as chert had become crystallized. On the analogy of these forms, the h was inserted between the preposition and the stem in other compounds of this verb.

The pasts of all these perfectives are занять, заняла, заняло; заняли: понять, поняла, поняло; поняли, &c., i.e. they are, as to be expected, formed from the infinitive.

# § 114. Perfective Simple Verbs.

Not all perfective verbs are compound. There is a fair number of simple verbs which are already perfective in themselves without the prefixing of any preposition.

Such verbs are

дать = to give
дъть = to put
стать = to take one's stand, to become, to begin.

Besides these there are two categories of simple verbs which are perfective; the first contains verbs of various classes, most of them very common:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
броса́ть	to throw	бросить
кончать	to finish	ко́нчить
контижок	to lie down	лечь
лишать	to deprive	лиши́ть
па́дать	to fall	пасть
прощать	to forgive	простить
ся	to say good-bye	ся
пускать	to let (go)	пустить
рвшать	to decide	атишат
скакать	to leap	скочить
становиться	to become	стать
ступать	to step	ступи́ть
садиться	to sit down	cěcta
хвата́ть	to seize	хвати́ть
явля́ться	to appear	явиться
	and the second of the second o	

Of one verb the imperfective aspect is compounded with a preposition, while the perfective aspect is a simple verb, viz.

покупа́ть to buy купи́ть

These verbs being perfective when they are simple, are none the less perfective when compounded with a preposition. Of the corresponding simple imperfective verbs, some when compounded with a preposition become perfective and require the formation of a compound imperfective, others remain imperfective.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
ступать	to step	стуцить
поступать	{to enter (an institution)} {to behave	посту́инть
рѣша́ть	to decide	рѣши́ть
разрѣша́ть	to permit	разрѣши́ть
явля́ться	to appear	яви́ться
объявлять	to declare but	объяви́ть
бросать	to throw	бросить
выбра́сывать	to throw out	{выбросить {выбросать
становиться	to become	стать
остана́вливаться	to stop	остановиться
садиться	to sit down	стеть
пересаживаться	to change trains	пересѣсть

The other category contains a number of verbs ending in -нуть, which by means of this ending connote a single (definitive, perfective) action, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
глядъ́ть	to look	гляну́ть
дви́гать	to move (trans.)	двинуть
крича́ть	to cry out	крикнуть
кида́ть	to fling	кинуть
маха́ть	to wave	махну́ть
плевать	to spit	плюнуть
совать	to shove	сунуть
тро́гать	to touch	тро́нуть
шептать	to whisper	шепнуть

It is important not to confuse these with other simple verbs ending in -нуть which are imperfective, e.g. тянуть = to pull, which are made perfective in the ordinary way, viz. by prefixing a preposition, потянуть, крынуть = to grow strong, compound perfective orphinyth. These verbs in -нуть being perfective are naturally also perfective when compounded with a preposition; the corresponding simple imperfective verbs are usually lengthened by the already familiar process (insertion of -ыв- or -ив-) to form the corresponding compound imperfective, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
глядѣ́ть	to look	гляну́ть ¹
взгля́дывать	to look up	взгляну́ть
совать	to shove	су́нуть
высовывать	to shove out	высунуть
тро́гать	to touch	тро́нуть
дотрогиваться	to come into (physical) contact with	дотро́нуться
кричать	to cry out	крикнуть
векрикивать	to scream	вскрикнуть
Notice		
кидать	to fling	ки́нуть
прики́дываться	to pretend to be but	прикинуться
иокида́ть and	to abandon	поки́нуть
висѣть	to hang (intrans.)	повиснуть

Some verbs only used in composition with prepositions cannot be formed in complete series, e. g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
обманывать	to deceive	обману́ть
вздыха́ть	to sigh	вздохну́ть
исчезать	to disappear	псче́знуть
привыкать	to grow accustomed to	привыкнуть
отвыкать	to disaccustom oneself to	отвыкнуть

# § 115. Imperfective Compound Verbs.

Conversely not all compound verbs are perfective. We have already seen that the prefixing of a preposition does not necessarily make a verb perfective, e.g. pastobáphbath = to converse, yóhbáth = to kill, nokyháth = to buy, noctyháth = to behave. Besides these there is a very large number of compound imperfective verbs which form a class by themselves. These correspond in meaning to a series of compound perfective verbs ending mostly

<sup>1</sup> A perfective verb поглядіть also exists.

in -htl or -ktl and belonging to class II. The corresponding compound imperfectives are formed not by lengthening the root with additional syllables, but by altering the infinitive ending from -htl or -ktl to -htl, thus making them verbs of class I. In the course of this alteration the phonetic changes observable in the 1st sing. of the present of verbs of class II (palatalization of the last consonant of the stem and substitution of the ending -y for-to, e. g. Búxhy from Búght, or insertion of h. e. g. hoomó from hooúth are reproduced throughout the whole of the compound imperfective owing to the influence of the palatal vowel h, which in certain cases becomes a (i. e. -htl, &c., become -ath, &c.).

	Imperfective.		Perfective.
	встръчать	to meet	встрътить
	воображать	to imagine	вообразить
	выража́ть	to express	вы́разить
	навѣща́ть	to visit	навъстить
	объясня́ть	to explain	объяснить
	ошибаться	to be mistaken	ошибиться
	отвъчать	to answer	ответить
	перемѣня́ть	to change	перемѣни́ть
	повторя́ть	to repeat	повторить
	получать	to receive	атичукоп
	позволя́ть	to permit	позво́лить
	посъщать	to visit	посётить
	ударя́ть	to strike (trans.)	уда́рить
	убѣжда́ть	to convince	убѣди́ть
	употреблять	to use	употребить
No	ісе вѣ́шать	to hang (trans.)	повъснть
		and many others.	

In the case of a few verbs which are used in their simple forms it is possible to form the already familiar complete series of four, e.g.

Imperfective.	Perfective.
ста́вить to put	поставить
оставлять to leave	оставить

and many other very common compounds.

# Compound Imperfectives formed by change of accent.

In the case of a few verbs the form of the compound imperfective differs from that of the simple imperfective (except for the addition of the preposition) only in the position of the accent, e. g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
падать	to fall	[пасть] 1
пропада́ть	to get lost	пропасть
notice	also the very commo	n verbs
попада́ть	to hit upon, to happen	on попасть
сыпать	to scatter	посы́пать
pres. сы́шлю, сы́плешь		pres. посыплю, посы- плешь
засыпать	to cover by strewing	засы́пать
pres. засынаю notice also the	very common variati	pres. засынлю, засы- илешь ons of this verb
засьша́ть просыпа́ться	to fall asleep to awake	засну́ть просну́ться
дви́гать pres. дви́гаю and движу	to more (trans.)	дви́нуть
подвигать	to more up to (trans.	) подвинуть
sometimes	the r is retained in th	ne perfective
воздвигать	to erect	атунтіндкон
бѣ́гать	to run	побъ́гать
пзбѣга́ть	to avoid	избъжа́ть избъ́гнуть

# § 116. Simple Imperfective Verbs with two forms.

There is a certain number of simple imperfective verbs which have two distinct forms, distinct, though cognate in meaning. They are both equally imperfective, but while one describes an action that is actually in progress, the other connotes potentiality

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The compound perfective упа́сть, pres. упаду́ (compound imperfective упада́ть), is more commonly used than пасть.

or habit. The former are called actual simple imperfectives (sometimes called concrete), the latter potential simple imperfectives (sometimes called abstract). A good example is the verb to go (sc. on foot); to express this there are two distinct imperfective verbs:

- 1. итти (sometimes spelt идти́)
- 2. ходить.

The first means actually to go or to be going, the second potentially to go or to be in the habit of going. Examples:

куда́ вы идёте? = where are you going? (sc. now)

хо́дите-ли вы въ те́атръ? = do you go to the theatre? (sc. ever or often)

я иду́ гуля́ть = I am going for a walk

я уже́ хожу́ = I can now walk (sc. after an illness).

The verb to fly is:

- 1. летъть
- 2. летать

воть летить аэроплань! = there is an aeroplane flying! птицы летають = birds fly.

The verb to carry is:

- 1. нести
- 2. носить

почтальо́нъ несёть вамъ письмо́ = the postman is bringing you a letter

я всегда ношу калоши = I always wear galoshes.

These verbs are the following:

Actual.		Potential.
inf. блестѣть	to shine	блиста́ть
pres. { блещу́ блести́шь		блиста́ю блиста́еш <b>ь</b>
inf. бѣжа́ть	to run	бѣ́гать
pres. { бѣ́гу́ бѣжи́шь		бѣ́гаю бъ́гаеш <b>ь</b>
inf. везти	to convey	вози́ть
Fres. { Besý Besömb		вожý
- (везёшь		возишь

# SIMPLE IPFV. VERBS WITH TWO FORMS

4.4		Potential.
Actual.		
inf. вести	to lead	водить
pres. { веду́		вожу́
1 ведёшь		во́дишь
гнать	to drive, chase	гоня́ть
гоню		гоня́ю
гонишь		&c.
идти́	to go (on foot)	ходи́ть
пду́		хожу́
идёшь		<b>х</b> о́диш <b>ь</b>
летъ́ть	to fly	лета́ть
лечу́		летаю
лети́шь		&c.
ломить	to break	ломать
ломлю́		ломаю
ло́мишь		&c.
атейк	to climb, clamber	ла́зить
үедт		лажу
лѣ́зешь		amneàn
нести	to carry, bear	носить (to wear)
несу́		ношý
несёшь		носишь
ПЛЫТЬ	to float, swim	
плыву	to from, swins	пла́вать (to swim) пла́ваю
плывёшь		плаваю &c.
INDIBOILIB		∝c.
nozen	to crawl	по́лзать
ползу́		ползаю
ползёшь		&c.
сади́ть	to set, plan <b>t</b>	сажа́ть
сажý		сажаю
са́дишь		&c.
źхать	to go (in any way	<b>Б</b> здить
бду	except on foot, e.g.	ъ́зжу
<b>ź</b> дешь	by train or on horseback)	ъ́здишь

Two verbs belonging to this category are defective, viz.

Actual.		Potential.
ви́дѣть	to see	видать
вижу видишь (sometin	nes contracted to BRIEF	<b>P</b> )
слы́шать слы́шу	to hear	слыха́ть
слышшь		

The presents of the potential imperfectives of these verbs are not used; the infinitives and the pasts are, on the other hand, quite common, especially in negations and interrogations, e.g.

eró не видать = he is not to be seen (sc. I can't see him) слыха́ли-ли вы этого пъвца́? = have you ever heard this singer?

When these verbs are compounded with prepositions it is usually the actual imperfective which forms the compound perfective with loss of meaning by the preposition, though such are also sometimes formed by the potential imperfective. It is also the actual imperfective which forms the compound perfective with retention of meaning by the preposition. On the other hand, it is the potential imperfective which forms the compound imperfective with retention of meaning by the preposition:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
летъ́ть (actual) летъ́ть (potential)	to fly	полетѣть
перелетать	to fly over	перелетъ́ть
вести́ води́ть	to lead 🚜	повести
проводить	to lead through to spend (time)	провести
везтіі возить	to convey	повезти́
привози́ть	to bring (in a conveyance)	привезт <b>й</b>

Imperfective.		Perfective.
нести	to carry	понести
носить	to wear	поноси́ть 1
приноси́ть	to bring (by hand)	принести
идти́ ходи́ть	to go (on foot)	пойти́ сходи́ть <sup>2</sup>
приходи́ть	to come (on foot)	прійти́ (or придти́
находить	to find	найти́
проходи́ть	to pass	пройти́

Needless to say, both forms of all these verbs have many other compounds besides those given here.

The two verbs видьть and слышать have the following perfectives:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
видъть	to see	уви́дѣть
видать		увидать
слышать	to hear	услышать
слыхать		услыхать

The presents of увидёть and услышать are very common, being the ordinary (perfective) futures of видёть and слышать, e.g.

я увижу его за́втра = I shall see him to-morrow.

The presents of увидать and услыхать are never used. Their pasts on the other hand are quite common, and it is to be noticed that there is no essential difference in meaning between

увидаль and увидыль

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This verb is seldom used, the perfective future of нести́ (without idea of any particular direction) is понести́; from носи́ть (which usually, but not always, means to wear) the imperfective future is naturally бу́ду носи́ть, while I shall wear (= I shall put on) is надѣну from надѣть.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> сходить has a special meaning, viz. to go, with the implication of speedy return, e.g.

я схожу на почту = I shall just run round to the post (and shall be back soon).

There is also an imperfective verb сходить (perfective сойти) = to some or go off, e.g.

снъ сходить съ ума = he is going off his head сходиться, сойтись = to foregather.

or between

услыхаль and услышаль.

Notice the compounds:

Imperfective,		Perfective.
завидовать	to envy	позавидовать
ненавидѣть	to hate	возненавидъть
предвидѣть	to foresee	(only imperfective),

Two verbs deserve special mention, viz. of mats and mats; these form their compound perfectives from the actual imperfective, but the corresponding compound imperfective is formed not from the potential imperfective but from yet a third imperfective form of the word, only used in composition:

	Perfective.
to run	побъжать
	побътать
to run across	перебѣжа́ть
to avoid	{ избѣжа́ть and избѣ́гнуть
to run away	убѣжа́ть
{ to run to to have recourse to	ирибѣжа́ть прибѣ́гнуть
to go (except on foot)	воѣхать съѣздпть <sup>2</sup>
to arrive	прівхать
to depart	у́Бхать
	to run across  to avoid  to run away  { to run to  to have recourse to  to go (except on foot)  to arrive

плыть and лёзть have the same peculiarity, forming their compound imperfectives not with the verbs плавать and лазить but with -плывать and -лёзать; they are not given in full here, because they are of much less common occurrence.

½ žхать and žздить form parallels to идти and ходить, e.g.

я вы Лондонъ = I am travelling to London

я наждый годь тэжу въ Россію = I travel to Russia every year.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> събланть forms a parallel to сходить and means to take a journey and come back soon, e.g.

вчера́ мы съвздили къ знакомымъ = yesterday we drove to see some acquaintances (sc. we didn't stay long or we came home again the same day).

It has already been mentioned that the potential imperfectives are not often used to form the compound perfectives, but usually to form the compound imperfectives, e.g. неренетать, проводить, &c. But we have seen that they can be so used, e.g. сходать, съёздеть. Besides these there are, however, numerous instances of the use of the potential imperfectives to form a compound perfective; in such cases the corresponding compound imperfective is formed not from the actual imperfective but by the already familiar process of the insertion of -ыв- or -нв-, or by some other alternative form. It is to be noticed that several potential imperfectives which are in themselves intransitive become transitive when they enter this category of compound perfectives. For the sake of lucidity the verbs are repeated in full:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
нести	to carry	понести
носить	to wear	поноси́ть
приносить	to bring (by hand)	принести
изнашивать	to wear out (materials, clothes)	износить
notice also		
выносить	to carry out, to endure	вынести
вынашивать	to wear out (clothes)	выносить
вести	to lead	повести
водить		
проводить	to spend (time)	провести
провожать	∫to accompany (walking)	<b>,</b> "
a popolitura	to see off (at station)	проводить
идти́	to go (on foot)	пойти
ходить		сходить
уходи́ть	to go away	уйти́
уха́живать <sup>1</sup>		уходить <sup>2</sup>
ъ́хать	to go (except on foot)	повхать
<b>Ъ</b> зди <b>ть</b>	그리다는 나는 이번 이렇다면서 다	съѣздить
разъвзжаться	(to depart in different directions	разъвхаться
Poorpowarecu	to miss one another on the road	разыкаться
разъвживать	to wear out (the road with traffic)	разъездить

<sup>1 =</sup> to flirt with or to nurse; construction: sa + instrumental.
2 = to waste (money), to wear out (a horse).

and somewhat anomalously

Imperfective.

Refective.

пзъвзжать {to travel over all parts of, visit } нзъвздить

exhaustively } нзъвздить

Notice the causative verbs:

расти́ to grow (intrans.) вы́расти выраща́ть to make grow вы́растить and поить = to water (animals) from пить = to drink.

# § 117. Anomalous Verbs.

A few simple imperfective verbs have as compound perfectives corresponding to them in meaning verbs from other stems; these are:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
брать pres. беру́ берёшь	to take	взять pres. возьму́ возьмёшь
бить pres. бью бьёшь	to hit	уда́рить pres. уда́рю уда́ришь
класть pres. кладу́ кладёшь	to put	положи́ть pres. положу́ положишь
дови́ть pres. довдю́ до́вишь	to catch	пойма́ть pres. пойма́ю пойма́ешь
говори́ть pres. говорю́ говори́шь	to say, tell	сказа́ть pres. скажу́ ска́жешь

Several of these verbs have compound perfectives or imperfectives formed from the same stem as well as those given here, but it has so happened that e.g. the verb сказать has come to be the regular perfective corresponding in meaning to говори́ть; there is a perfective verb поговори́ть, but it means to have a little talk, while

сказать and говорить both mean to say or tell (говорить can also mean to talk). It is thus possible to form fuller though incomplete series of these verbs, e. g.

```
Perfective.
         Imperfective.
брать
              = to take
              = to collect
                                      собрать
                                                 = to collect
собирать
взимать
                                      взять
                                                 = to take
              = to levy money
                                      побить
                                                 = to kit a little
бить
              = to hit
              = to kill
                                      убить
                                                 = to kill
убивать
              = to hit
                                      ударить
                                                 = to hit
ударять
              = to put
пласть
             = to pack (trans.)
укладывать
                                      уложить
                                                 = to pack (trans.)
                       (intrans.)
                                                            (intrans.)
полагать
              = to suppose
                                     >положить = to put
                                                   to suppose
  Notice the idioms:
              полага́ется? = is it included (in the price)?
              дининогон
                          = let us suppose
ловить
             = to catch
налавливать = to catch a lot
                                      наловить = to catch a lot
                                     -поймать
                                                 = to catch
                                        Cf. the cognate verb
понимать
             = to understand
                                      аткноп
                                                 = to understand
говорить
                                                    = to talk a little
              = to say, tell, talk <-
                                      поговорить
разгова́ривать = to converse
уговаривать
              = to try to persuade
                                      уговорить
                                                    = to persuade
отгова́ривать = to try to dissuade
                                      отговорить
                                                    = to dissuade
отказывать(ся) = to refuse
                                      отказать(ся) = to refuse
vказывать
              = to point out
                                      указать
                                                    = to point out
оказываться
              = to turn out to be
                                      оказаться
                                                    = to turn out to be
приказывать
              = to order
                                      приказать
                                                    = to order
заказывать
                                      заказа́ть
                                                    = to ,, , register
наказывать
              = to punish
                                      наказать
                                                    = to punish
показывать
              = to prove
                                      локазать.
                                                    = to prove
показывать
              = to show
                                      показать
                                                    = to show
разсказывать = to relate
                                      разсказать
                                                    = to relate
сказывать
                                      CKURÚTK
                                                    = to tell, say
```

Imperfective.

Perfective.

[Cf. нажется =  $\begin{cases} it \ seems, \\ sc. \ I \ think \end{cases}$ 

показа́лось = it seemed

Certain verbs are only perfective, e.g.

очутиться = to find oneself suddenly anywhere очнуться = to wake up anywhere есспояться = to take place.

Others are only imperfective, e.g.

зависьть = to depend
значить = to mean
недоумъвать = to be perplexed,
to hesitate
нуждаться = to need
новиноваться = to submit to
подлежать = to be open to (e.g.
doubt)
подражать = to imitate
покровительствовать = to protect
предстоять = to be imminent

предпувствовать — to have a presentiment of преспыдовать — to persecute принадлежать — to belong содержать — to contain, maintain содыйствовать — to help, contribute to (morally) сожалыть — to regret состоять — to consist сочувствовать — to sympathize стоить — to cost

Others can be used as imperfectives or perfectives, having only the one form, e.g.

венть = to order, command женться = to marry (of the man only) ранить = to wound.

Some verbs, apparently perfective, are derived from compound nouns, e.g.

 Imperfective.
 Perfective.

 разумъ́стся
 it is understood

 (ра́зумъ)
 забо́титься
 to trouble about anything
 позабо́титься

 (забо́та)
 наслѣ́довать
 to inherit
 унаслѣ́довать

 (наслѣ́дникъ)
 унаслѣ́довать

# PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION WITH VERBS, NOUNS, ETC.

§ 118. The following is not intended to be a complete list of all the various meanings acquired or lent by prepositions in composition; such a list to be exhaustive would require a whole book to itself.

Here only some of the most important varieties of meaning are given as a help to the beginner, who is often puzzled by the apparently numberless compound words. It is important to remember that most of the prepositions can be used merely to make a perfective out of an imperfective verb. Also that in many cases besides this the original meaning of the preposition is barely apparent. In beginning to read Russian it is always helpful to cut off the preposition or prepositions of any unfamiliar compound word, when the root (and the meaning) will often become clear.

There are five prepositions which are only used in composition, viz. BO3-, BEI-, HU3-, HEP- (HPE-), and PA3-.

# воз- (вз-)

The meaning is originally up, e.g. воздвигать ipfv. = to erect

but this often lapses, e.g.

возражать ipfv. = to reply возразить pfv. = ,,

sometimes it merely forms the perfective:

возненави́дѣть pfv. = to conceive hatred for возможно = it is possible.

When the word with which it is compounded begins with a vowel it sometimes, though by no means always, contracts to B3-, e.g.

взойти pfv. = to rise (of the sun, &c.) взять pfv. = to take

but pres. возьм $\circ = I$  shall take

взмо́рье = deep water (at sea, as opposed to the shallow water of an estuary).

If the word with which it is compounded begins with  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $\tau$ , it becomes BOC-, e.g.

восхо́дъ со́лнца = sunrise
восто́къ = the East
Воскресе́ніе = Sunday (Resurrection)
воспреца́ть ipfv.
воспрети́ть pfv.

it sometimes appears as Ec- before words beginning with these same consonants:

всходи́ть ipfv.  $= to \ rise$  вскрича́ть pfv.  $= to \ scream$ .

Care must be taken not to mistake BO3- for BL in composition with words beginning with 3, c.

#### вы-

usually = out, e.g.

it sometimes means thoroughly

выськать высьчь = to thrash thoroughly выздоровьть pfv. = to get thoroughly well

sometimes merely to form the perfective

BÉHHETE pfv. = to drink (sc. to drink to the end) in composition with Heerú and Hocúre cf. § 116.

A peculiarity of this preposition in composition with verbs is that when it makes the verb compounded with it perfective it attracts and holds the accent throughout, while if the compound verb is imperfective the accent remains on the stem of the verb, e.g.

выража́ть ipfv. выразить pfv.} = to express

Imperfective.Perfective.Выйзжатьto drive outвыйзкатьвыйзживатьto break in horsesвыйзацить

Cf. also in composition with necrú and носить § 116.

#### низ-

= down

низвергать ipfv. = to cast down, to abase.

## пере-

generally = over, across, afresh

переходить ipfv. перейти́ pfv. } = to cross on foot

перевжать ipfv. = to cross (by boat or rail)
перевжать pfv. to move (into a new house)

перем'яна = change (e. g. in the weather)

переписка = correspondence

перевозъ = ferry

перево́дъ = translation

перева́ль = watershed

It can imply excess:

пересолить = to over-salt.

Another form of this preposition is

## npe-

which is also used to express the ideas round, over, or across.

претворя́ть ipfv. претвори́ть pfv. = to transform, convert

предавать ipfv. предать pfv. } = to hand over to, to betray

преданный = devoted

преступление = transgression, crime

препятствіе = obstacle

предълъ = boundary, region

превышать ipfv. = to surpass (trans.)

презирать ipfv. = to despise

прерывать ipfv. } = to interrupt

преимущество = advintage

Notice непременно = without fail.

In composition with other prepositions:

превосходи́ть ipfv. превосходи́тельство = Excellency превосходи́тельство = Excellent! преподава́ть ipfv. пренодава́ть ipfv. пренода́ть pfv. } = to teach, lecture on.

In composition with adjectives it lends superlative meaning, e.g.

прекра́сный = very beautiful, splendid

(the original meaning of красный was bright) cf. § 59.

## раз-

usually = asunder, dis-, di-

разво́дь = divorce
размѣня́ть pfv. = to change (money)
размѣръ = dimension
раздѣмі́ть ipfv. } = to divide, distribute
разбива́ть ipfv. } = to break (e.g. glass or china).

It can also as it were amplify any activity, e.g.

разгова́ривать ipfv. = to converse разгово́рь = conversation разска́зывать ipfv.  $}$  = to narrate разска́зать = to narrate разска́зь = a tale развра́ть = depravity разводи́ть ipfv. = to breed.

It often corresponds to our un-:

раздѣва́ться ipfv. раздѣться pfv. развѣться pfv. развѣтіс = development (lit. unwinding) разва́лины = ruins разстра́ивать ipfv. разстро́ить pfv. } = to unsettle, upset (morally). It sometimes means quite, e.g.

я не разслышаль =  $I \ didn't \ quite \ hear$ .

Notice the following:

yмъ = mind

разумъ = intellect

ýмный = clever

разумный = sensible (with common sense)

разсчёть = calculation

разсвянный = absent-minded.

The ъ is retained before palatal vowels, e.g.

разъбхаться pfv. = to break up (of a party).

When и follows it becomes ы, e.g.

разыскать from разъ + искать.

Before к, х, п, т, ц, ч, ш, щ раз- becomes pacрасхо́ды = expenses.

Occasionally, usually when the accent falls on it, pas-becomes

роз-, e.g. pозлиль, розлила = to pour out (tea), to spill

alternative past of разлить pfv., the other being разлиль, &c.

росписаніе повздовъ = time-table of trains (on the wall).

In composition with other prepositions:

распродажа = sale (in shops)

расположение = disposition, temperament

распоряже́ніе = disposition (control), arrangement распростране́ніе = propagation.

The other prepositions used in composition are:

## безъ

= (without), dis-, un- (this never changes to bec-)

безусловно = unconditionally, absolutely

безкоры́стный = disinterested

безпокойный = anxious

безобра́зный = horrible, disgraceful (lit. having no pattern, sc. unlike anything).

When n follows it becomes w:

безымённый = nameless (безь + úмя).

Въ (во) = in, into

входи́ть (въ) ipfv. войти́ (въ) pfv. входь = entrance

вводить ipfv. } = to introduce (e. g. a custom) внобиться (въ) pfv. = to fall in love with включительно = inclusively.

Notice

встава́ть ipfv. = to get up (from bed) внима́ніе = attention.

The b is retained before soft vowels, e. g.

BEÉXATE pfv. = to ride or drive into.

Ao = up to, to the end, pre-

доходи́ть (до) ipfv. дойти́ (до) pfv. } = to reach (on foot) дойхать (до) pfv. = to reach (except on foot) дохо́дь = income догово́рь = treaty доказа́тельство = proof доното́нный = antediluvian докла́дь = lecture (on anything) доста́ть = to obtain.

За
= behind
захо́дъ со́лнца = sunset

It has many uses not obviously though indirectly connected with this meaning:

заходить кь ipfv.} = to call on, look in on

заде́ржка = delay

валожить = to mortgage

закла́дь = pledge, wager ...

вака́зъ = order (for anything, e.g. goods)

заказно́е письмо́ = registered letter

ваплатить pfv. = to pay

(платить ipfv.)

заставля́ть ipfv. = to compel sacтавить pfv.

sa often gives the meaning: to start doing anything, e.g.

засм'вяться = to break into laughter

which is the perfective of

emв́яться = to laugh

запьть pfv. = to burst into song ваговорить pfv. = to start talking.

With a reflexive verb it can mean to forget oneself, be lost in

doing anything:

зачитаться pfv. = to read till you lose sense of time and place.

изъ (изо)

= out

издавать ipfv.) = to edit, publish изпать ofv. издание = edition, publication

изложе́ніе = exposition.

The b is retained before soft vowels, e.g.

изъяснение = explanation.

When и follows it becomes ы, e.g.

изысканный = exquisite, far-fetched.

Before K, X, II, T, Y, II it becomes Mc-:

псхо́дъ = issue (out of a difficulty)
псполна́ть ipfv.
пспо́лнать pfv.
исключе́ніе = exception
псключа́тельно = exclusively.

## между

= inter- (but never with verbs) междунаро́дный = international.

### Ha

= on to

находить ipfv. найти́ pfv. надежда = hope (something put on) надежться = to hope.

# Notice

насл'ядникь = heir
насморкь = cold (in the head)
наўка = science
народь = people, nation
наложеннымь платежёмь = pay on delivery
настоящій = present, actual, real
наступающій = coming, imminent
намъреніе = intention.

Often with the meaning of to do anything to the full, or largely найсться pfv. = to eat one's fill накупить pfv. = to buy a quantity of наслаждаться ipfv. = to enjoy oneself начитанный = well-read.

Preceded by a negative it expresses the idea not to be able to have enough of

ненагия́дный = that one cannot feast one's eyes on long enough иннасытный = insatiable.

## налъ

= oner

на́дпись = inscription принадлежать ipfv. = to belong.

# 0 (06- 060)

= about

обходить ipfv. обойти pfv. = to go round

необходимый = essential

обдумывать ipfv. = to think over

сшибка = mistake (= missing the mark).

This meaning is often not apparent:

обижать ipfv. обильть ufv. } = to offend (lit. look round)

опечатка = misprint

огово́рка = reserve, limitation

объть = dinner

огоро́дь = kitchen-garden.

The ъ is retained before a palatal vowel, e.g. объясне́ніе = explanation.

When I follows it becomes II, e.g.

обыскъ = inquiry, search.

# отъ (ото)

= away from

отходить (оть) ipfv. отойти (оть) pfv. = to go away from

оттепель = a thaw

отлично! = excellent!

отрызать = to cut off

sometimes ото- as in отослать = to send away.

The T is retained before soft vowels, e.g. orthare = departure.

When u follows it becomes u, e.g.

отыскать = to find by dint of searching.

#### по

The commonest use is to make imperfective verbs perfective; in doing so it usually connotes that the action will be of less duration or of less importance than that expressed by the simple imperfective verb, e.g.

поговорить = to talk a little потанцовать = to dance a little посмъяться = to laugh a little.

But in a large number of cases it has lost all trace of its original meaning, e.g.

посылать  $\inf_{a} v.$  = to send послать pfv. получать ipfv. = to receiveпосыщать ipfv. = to visit.

Notice the following very common words, all compounded with no:

> = campaign похолъ похожъ (па) = like (adj.) похороны = funeral

постель = bed (specifically bedding)

= act, behaviour поступокъ = crockery посуда

 $= I_{GSS}$ потеря

= second-hand подержанный

послъ = afterпослудиній = last

послѣдствіе = consequence

последовать (за) pfv. = to follow after -

= next

and hundreds of others.

Сf. слѣдующій вследствіе + асс. = as a result of

следовать (за) ipfv. = to follow after следить (за) ipfv. = to follow.

подъ (подо-) = under

подходить (кь) ipfv. подойти (къ) pfv. поднимить).

 $\left. egin{array}{ll} ext{подним\'ать} \\ ext{от подым\'ать} \\ ext{нодн\'ать} \end{array} 
ight. 
ight\} = to \ \textit{lift}$ 

подд'яльный = counterfeit
подходя́щій = suitable
подде́ржка = support
поджига́тельство = incendiarism
подозрѣва́ть ipfv. = to suspect
подозри́тельный = suspicious,

The ъ is retained before soft vowels, e.g. подъёздь = porch, entrance,

When и follows it becomes ы, e.g. подыскать = to match (e.g. colours), assort.

(передъ)

пред-

= fore (fore-), pre-

предсказывать ipfv.  $\} = to$  foretell предсказа́ть pfv.  $\} = to$  foretell предвари́тельный = preliminary предпочита́ть ipfv.  $\} = to$  prefer предпоче́сть pfv.  $\} = to$  prefer

предложение = offer, suggestion.

Notice:

предпринимать ipfv. предпринять pfv. предпринять pfv. предприте = undertaking.

The ъ is retained before soft vowels, e.g. предъявление = presentation (of a claim).

When n follows it may be written ы, e.g. предыдущій = preceding.

# при

in composition often expresses the idea of motion towards or of the application of one thing to another:

принимать ipfv. pfv.  $= \begin{cases} to \ accept \ (invitations), to \ receive \ (guests), to \ take \ (medicines) \end{cases}$ 

примъ́ръ = example напримъ́ръ = for example (abbr. напр.)

причина = reason.

## npo

= through, past

проходить ipfv. пройти́ pfv. = to pass, go through.

## Notice:

пропускная бума́га = blotting-paper
просту́да = cold (on the chest)
напрока́ть = on hire
продава́ть ipfv.
прода́ть pfv.
проміть = to lose (a game), to lose money at play.

(противъ) противо-

= anti-

противодъйствовать = to counteract противоръчие = contradiction, inconsistency.

$$\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{b}}$$
 (co) = (1) with (2) from

- сравнение = comparison
   сходство = resemblance
   состоять (пзь, вы) ipfv. = to consist (of)
   ссгланаться (сы) ipfv.
   согласаться (сы) pfv.
   = to agree (with)
- (2) снимать ipfv. сиять pfv. 

  (photographs)

  ссыяка = exile.

Sometimes the meaning is not apparent:

считать ipfv. } = to count, consider счеть pfv. } = to count, consider счёть = bill, account насчёть = to the account of, as regards, on account of соборь = cathedral сомнъваться ipfv. = to doubt събсть pfv. = to eat.

The ъ is retained before soft vowels, e.g. съйздъ = meeting, assembly.

When п follows it becomes ы, е. g.

сыщикь = spy.

уходить ipfv. } = to go away (on foot)
уйти́ pfv. } = to go away (on foot)
уйвжить ipfv. } = to depart (e. g. by rail)
убирать ipfv. } = to clear away
Q 2

# 244 PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION WITH VERBS, ETC.

But this primary meaning is often lost:

уставать ipfv. устать pfv. } = to grow tired vxо́дь = looking after, care for vвздъ = district уборная (sc. комната) = lavatory указывать (на) ipfv. указать (на) pfv. э to point to vкáзъ = decree унижение = humiliation умирать ipfv.) = to die умереть pfv. ) удобно = convenient, comfortable уго́дно = agreeable какъ вамъ угодно = just as you like. ybórin = poor, lowly удовлетворять ipfv. \ удовлетворить pfv.  $\} = to satisfy$ used reflexively = to be satisfied удово́льствіе = pleasure Укла́дывать ipfv. vложи́ть pfv. = to pack (trans.) used reflexively = to pack (intrans.) used reflexively = to be in use угова́ривать = to try to persuade уговорить = to succeed in persuading уговоръ = agreement, stipulation **У**ВИДЪТЬ вильть видать увидать = perfectives of vзнать знать услышать слышать услыхать слыхать

## INTERJECTIONS

δ 119. a! ба! ахъ! охъ! = ah! oh! (surprise); ой! = oh! (fright). an! n! = hi! hullo! (attracting attention or expressing delight) ará! oró! aré! = aha! (triumph); r in these words sounds like h. тфу! тьфу! (imitative of the action of spitting) = ugh! pooh! (disgust); чорть возьми! = devil take it! damn! батюшки (little fathers)! матушки (little mothers)! express horror and amazement. Ha! = here you are, take this! BOTL! = voici! or voilá (cf. p. 116). ну<sup>1</sup>! ну-ка! = well! вонь! = (1) there it is over yonder! (2) away! -ка! (с. g. дай-ка сюда́ = come, give it here; 'ну, прочти-ка, воть' = 'come along here and just read this through') -To! (cf. pp. 63, 111) -те! (cf. р. 170) увы́! = alas! ypá! = hurrah! чу! шть! тсь! = hush! maбáшъ! = stop! easy! steady! ей-Бо́гу! ей-ей! = by God! sc. in very truth (asseveration). честное слово! = (my) word of honour! Госноди! Боже мой! = (Good) Lord! My God! (both used as frequently as Mon Dieu in French) па здравствуеть . .! = long live . .! vive . . .! . . долой! = down with . .! прочь! = away! avaunt! воть-те-разь! = there's a nice thing! there's a fine set-out! BOTH — TAKE ——! = that's what I call a fine . .! воть собака, такъ собака! = some dog, what! представь(те)! скажи(те)! = just think! fancy that! (cf. p. 251). неуже́ли! неужто́! нешто́! развъ́! = is it possible! ещё-бы! = I should say so! not half! какъ бы не такъ! = I don't think! здравствуйте (imperative of здравствовать, pronounce zdrastye, lit. be well), какъ вы поживаете? = how do you do, how are you? доброе утро (seldom used)! здорово! = good morning! (cf. p. 250). покойной (or спокойной) ночи (genitive after желаю вамъ understood, cf. p. 121)! = good-night!до-свида́нія! = au revoir! (lit. till seeing again)

прощайте! = good-bye! but, N.B., простите! = forgive! excuse me! <sup>1</sup> M Hy + imperfective infinitive = and (he) began to . . .

There are many interjections abbreviated from and often used instead of verbs, e.g.: 6ahb! xhomb! = bang! 6yxb! = flop! mmbits! = off he dashed! Cf. also idioms on pp. 66, 76, 108, 111, 112, 115-118, 120, 122, 128, 170, 192-198, 208, 251.

## RELATIONSHIPS

₹ 120.

прабабущка = great grand mother прадъдь = great-grandfather пъль (причика) = grandfather бабущка = grandmo/her пя́ля (пя́люшка) = uncle тётя (тётушка) = aunt . отенъ (батюшка, тятя, &с.) = мать (матушка, мама, &c.) = mother (cf. p. 54) father (cf. p. 46) pодители = parents дtrи = children (cf. p. 55) еынъ (сыно́къ) = son (cf. p. 48) дочь (дочка) = daughter (cf. p. 54) брать (братець) = brother (cf. р. сестра́ (сестри́ца) = s'ster (cf. pp. 49-51) 48) племинициа = niece илемя́нникъ = перћего внучка = aranddauahter внукъ (внучекъ) = grandsonдвоюродная сестра от кузина = двоюродный брать от кузень = cousin (masc.) cousin (fem.) зять 1 = son-in-law or brotherневъстка 1 = daughter-in-law or in-law (sister's husband) sister-in-law (brother's wife) шурпнъ1 = brother-in-law (sister's c = daughter-in-law. husband) де́верь 1 = brother-in-law (husзоло́вка 1 = sister - in - law (hus- : band's or wife's brother) band's sister) свойченица1 = sister-in-law (wife's своякь 1 = wife's sister's husband sister) евёкоръ 1 = father-in-law (husсвекровь 1 = mother-in-law (husband's father) band's mother) Tects = father-in-law (wife's тёща 1 = mother-in-law (wife's father) mother)

<sup>1</sup> Russians themselves get mixed up in the correct use of these quaint terms and frequently say beau-fils, beau-frère, belle-fille, belle-sæur, beau-père, belle-mère instead, only discriminating generation and sex.

(в) отчимь — step-father ма́чеха = step-mother па́сынокь — step-son па́дчерица = step-daughter свать — match-maker (masc.) сваха = match-maker (fem.) жени́хь = bridegroom невъ́ста = bride мужь = husband (cf. pp. 48, 144) жена́ = wife (cf. pp. 133, 135) кумь = gossip (co-god-parent, masc.) кума́ = gossip (co-god-parent, fem.)

# MEASURES AND WEIGHTS

# § 121.

# Money

100 коне́екъ (от коне́екъ) = 1 рубль (about 2s. in normal times) (cf. pp. 103, 104).

## DISTANCE

1 верста́ ( $\frac{2}{3}$  of a mile) = 500 саже́нямъ (dative, cf. p. 130)
1 са́жень (7 feet, a fathom) = 7 фу́тамъ (футь = foot)
1 арши́нть ( $2\frac{1}{3}$  feet) = 16 вершка́мъ
1 вершо́нть =  $1\frac{3}{3}$  inches,
1 дю́ймъ = 1 inch.

# SPACE

1 десятина =  $2\frac{1}{10}$  acres; the other measures preceded by the adjective квадра́тный = . . . . square.

# WEIGHT

 1 бе́рковець (360% lb.)
 = 10 пуда́мъ

 1 пудь (36% lb.)
 = 40 фунта́мъ

 1 фунть (% lb. avoirdupois)
 = 32 ло́тамъ

 1 лоть (\*45 oz.)
 = 3 золотника́мъ

 1 золотни́кь (65.8 grains)
 = 96 до́лямъ

1 доля = '68 grain.

# RUSSIAN ABBREVIATIONS

## § 122.

до Р. Х. (до Рождества́ Христо́ва) = B. C.

по Р. Х. (по Рождествъ Христовомъ) = A. D.

н. с. (новаго стиля) = new style)

c. c. (стараго стиля) = old style cf. p. 132

н. м. (прошлаго м'ясяца) = ult.

c. м. (сего́ мѣсяца) = inst.

б. м. (бу́дущаго м'всяца) = prox.

r. or r-нъ (господинъ) = Mr.

гжа. (госпожа́) = Mrs. or Miss

гг. (господа́) = Messrs. or Mr. and Mrs.

и др. (другіе от другія)

и пр. (прочее or -чie or чiя) = and others, &c.

н т. д. (такъ да́дъ́е) = and so forth, and so on, cf. pp. 131, 250.

и т. п. (тому́ подобное))
т. е. (то́-есть) = that is, i.e.

напр., нпр. (на-примъръ) = for example, e.g.

м. б. (можеть быть) = maybe, perhaps

и. т. ч. (потому́-что) = because

т. к. (такъ-какъ) = since, inasmuch as

т. н. (такъ называ́емый) = so-called, aforesaid

вм. (вибсто) = instead of

см. (смотри́) = see, v.

 ${
m cp.}$  (сравни) =  ${\it compare, cf.}$ 

 $\mathrm{crp.}$  ( $\mathrm{crpa}$ ница) = page

гл. (глава́) = chapter

ж. д. (жельзная дорога) = railway

ст. (станція) = station

губ. (губе́рнія) = government, province

c. (село́) = village

г. (го́родь) = town

р. (р\*к $\acute{a}$ ) = river

к., коп. (копейка) = kopels

р., руб. (рубль) = rouble

#### ADDENDA

§ 44, p. 56.

There are a few indeclinable neuter nouns, such as пальто́ (paletot) = overcoat, moccé (chaussée) = high-road, all ending in vowels; also surnames in -o, such as Шевче́нко (those in -ко are of Little Russian origin) and such names as Дурново́, Жива́го, and Мертва́го (pronounced -ágo, cf. p. 32); surnames in -ичь, e.g. Жа́вковичь, have no feminine forms.

§ 48, p. 64, Obs. 11.

The expression He Tó is used in the following idioms:

я не то́ хотѣ́ль сказа́ть = I didn't mean that не то́, что́бы + conditional, or + adjective = not exactly. не то́..., не то́... = not exactly..., not exactly...  $\bullet$  то уже́ не то́ = it is no longer the same thing.

He ró, or a ró, used by itself at the beginning of a sentence = or else.

§ 53, p. 74, Obs. 7.

The difference between какой and каковъ is this: какой = of what kind, which sort, e. g. это какое вино? = what kind of wine is that? каковъ = of what quality, how do you like, e. g. каково вино? = how do you like this wine? The pronoun таковъ is used commonly in the following idiom и быль таковъ! = and off he went (disappeared)! The full forms каковой and таковой are seldom used, their meaning is much the same as какой and такой, but they are used rather as pure pronouns, referring to a noun in a previous sentence, and not as adjectives. Такой-то = such and such, cf. р. 144. Какой-нибудь аnd какой-то correspond in meaning to кто-нибудь, кто-то, какъ-нибудь, какъ-то, е. g. какой-нибудь городъ = any town (you like to mention), въ какомъ-то царствъ = in a certain kingdom (opening of fairy-tale).

§ 55, p. 80.

The instrumental singular of names of places in -въ and -во is, not -вымъ, but -вомъ, e. g. за Кіевомъ = beyond Kiev, подъ Кіевомъ = near (lit. under) Kiev, nom. sing. Кіевъ.

The locative singular of names in -овъ, -ово, -евъ, -ево, -ынъ, -ынъ, -инъ, -инъ, -инъ, when they are surnames or place-names is, not -омъ, but -ѣ, as in the case of nouns, e.g. о Ле́рмонтовѣ, Пу́шкинѣ и Турге́невѣ = about Lérmontov, Púshkin, and Turgénev, въ Кі́евѣ и въ Цари́цынѣ = in Kíev and Tsaritsyn.

§ 71, p. 107.

Notice the common idiom:

никуда не годится = it is no good at all (cf. p. 159).

§ 72, p. 109.

Notice:

нынь nowadays, also = пока (cf. p. 118) can be and is often used adverbially = for (adj. ныньшній = of nowadays).

§ 73, p. 111.

Notice:

да́ромъ = free, gratis

въроя́тно = probably

вмъ́стъ́ = together

точь-въ-то́чь = exactly like, just as if (lit. dot-to-dot).

такъ-то та́къ! = that may be, that's all very well!

такъ п (+verb) = 'simply', 'just as if', e. g. глаза́ у него́ такъ и гора́тъ = his eyes are simply burning.

TAKE, followed by a verb, may also mean: (1) unintentionally, (2) gratis, for nothing.

§ 74, p. 114.

Notice: отчáсти = partly итогó : = total:

(This curious word is really  $n+\text{tor\acute{o}}$ , gen. sing. of to, = and of that; it is put at the foot of a bill, summing up the items, and from it has been formed a noun ntórb = a total, normerá entérb cuerý = to reckon up the total of, lit. to, a bill.)

Forcible colloquial equivalents of очень are: здорово (not to be confused with здорово, p. 245), and больно = properly, extremely, not half; не больно = not particularly.

Other common comparative adverbs are:

далье = further (п такъ далье, и т. д. = and so forth)

до́лье = longer

ра́нье = earlier (cf. зара́нье = beforehand, betimes).

§ 78, p. 118.

A subordinate clause in Russian is often preceded by a correlative pronoun in the principal sentence, which is not needed in English, and is puzzling at first sight, e. g.: дбло въ томъ, что я но могу́ прійти́ = the point is that I can't come, analogously: для того́, что́бы—за тѣмъ, что́бы—съ тѣмъ, что́бы = in order that, ме́жду тѣмъ, какъ = while, по́слѣ того́, какъ = after, пе́редъ тѣмъ, какъ (but пре́жде, чѣмъ) = before, до тѣхъ поръ,¹ пока́ не = until, съ тѣхъ поръ, какъ = since. According to Russian orthography a comma should always precede the conjunction, even in the phrase по тому́, что = because, though this rule is not always observed. When что beginning a clause = what (and not that) it is often accented что̀, as on p. 187.

§ 106, p. 193.

Notice the following idiomatic uses of the imperative:

пожа́луй (from пожа́ловать)! = by all means, I expect, I dare say, I shouldn't wonder (used as an interjection in conversation).

(N.B.—пожа́луйте = be so good, used more by shop-attendants and servants.)

поми́луйте (from поми́ловать) = goodness gracious, I say, look here, no really (used as a remonstrance in conversation).

скажи́те (often followed by пожа́луйста)! = you don't mean to say so!

разсказывай!  $= go \ on !$ 

сділайте одолженіе! = by all means, with pleasure, certainly (lit make the loan, said when acceding to a request or granting a favour).

пзвините! = excuse me! I beg your pardon!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The words 'до твки пори' are often omitted in this phrase, not being essential to its meaning.

§ 109, p. 202.

Notice:

вакрыто = it is shut открыто = it is open

be used, e.g.

свободно = it is free запрещено = it is forbidden.

§ 112, p. 208.

Notice that состоять is also used with the meaning 'to be', e.g.: я состою предсёдателемь (inst., cf. p. 141) этого общества = I am the president of this society.

How to express one.

This is most frequently expressed by the 2nd person singular, e.g. HHYGFÓ HE HOÚMËHH = one can't understand a word (for this use of the perfective future cf. p. 188). After KOTAÁ and ÉCHA in such expressions either the present or the future may

когда́ поду́маешь . . . = when one thinks . . . éсли на это смо́тришь = if one looks at this.

The perfective future is frequently used after whenever, if ever. One can also be rendered by the infinitive, e.g.

мно́го жела́ть, добра́ не вида́ть = if one wishes (too) much, one sees no good (proverb), волко́вь боа́ться, вь ль́сь не ходи́ть = if one fears wolves, one mustn't go to the forest (proverb).

сели сказать вею истину = if one were to say the whole truth.

The reflexive verb, the 3rd person plural of the present tense and the passive participles are also used to express one, cf. p. 110.

§ 117, p. 230.

Notice that He Bentite = to forbid, e.g.:

Вогь лениться не велить = God forbids (us) to be idle. донторь мне не велёль вставать = the doctor forbude me to get up.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> = мъстоименія,

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